

Student Teaching
in
The Elementary School

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PREFACE

An Open Letter to Student Teachers

This book is for you. It is for your use during your first intensive teaching experience. It is written to help you meet practical problems involved in guiding children in their learning experiences at school. It includes materials that will aid you in your orientation and adjustment to the new types of situations and activities which student teaching itself demands. Moreover, throughout the book the three of us have assumed that, when you come to your student teaching, you are already well prepared because your course work has been designed to give you insight into the "hows and wherefores" of the profession. Because of your background, details that would belabor the obvious have been intentionally omitted. On the other hand, you will soon discover that, while this book is not philosophical in the ordinary sense of the word, an operational philosophy of modern education underlies the practices suggested.

As you work with the materials in this book, you will undoubtedly soon say to yourself, "What an immense job for one person! I should be twins!" If one attempted to do everything suggested in the following pages comprehensively and completely, he would have to race breathlessly, trying to catch up with himself. All living involves making choices in terms of the values one holds. While you work in the school as a student teacher, you will continuously have to choose where to put the emphases in your work with children and in your own personal-professional living. As you use the various chapters of the book, certain sections will be more valuable to you in your specific situation than will others. In a very real sense, the following pages may best serve your needs as a reference book, to which to turn again and again for help in your teaching—even beyond the days spent as a student teacher.

Throughout the chapters of this book, we three have tried to bear in mind that every student teacher as an individual works in a school situation different in many ways from that of any other student teacher. We realize also that student teachers will be working in elementary schools which tend to be traditional as well as those which are modern in their practices. Actually there is no such stereotype as "traditional" or "modern." Every school is somewhere on a continuum, more or less forward-looking in various respects. No elementary school in the United States

is completely "formal" or "informal"; therefore many suggestions in this book are included for the purpose of helping you move sensibly toward increasingly more desirable practices in the education of children.

Would it help you to know that we three have supervised student teachers in all kinds of schools? We have worked with student teachers in rural, village, suburban, and city school systems; in privileged, middle-class, and underprivileged communities; in schools with experimental, transitional, and traditional curriculum patterns. This book really grew out of our practical day-to-day work with student teachers, and the problems that they have recognized as most imperative in learning to be effective, competent, creative teachers.

Of course, we are indebted to a great many people for the ideas expressed in every chapter of this book. We are indebted to the many student teachers with whom we have worked, to our own teachers who helped us prepare for our profession, to writers and lecturers on topics of import in the advancement of the education of children. We know that we are particularly indebted to our colleagues in the Department of Education at The Ohio State University.

Here, then, is a book for you, the student teacher. Our wish for you during your directed teaching experience is this: "Good teaching! Good learning! Much success!"

J.B.B.
L.W.H.
L.B.J.

EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

The student-teaching phase in the education of teachers has a long history of tragic neglect. The subject-matter-minded wing in teachers colleges have looked down upon the campus "practice" or "training" school. The low estate of student teaching was also a natural result from our older conceptions of the educative process, now happily passing out of the picture. Education with emphasis upon intellectual activity and centered upon the mastery of subject matter was a relatively easy matter to carry on in the classroom,—or so it was thought. Practice teaching, as it was then called, was a minor and casual affair.

The student-teaching experience has been regarded by the more strictly professional group in teachers colleges as the heart of the training program. The nature of the learner, his growth, and development have been stressed as well as use of subject matter. Very little had been done, however, to improve student teaching and its administration until within the last decade or two.

The current period is marked by the rise of newer conceptions of education with resultant change in teacher education. Attention is centered upon the whole learner, not merely his mind. Needs and interests take their rightful place. The total setting for learning, the social and material environment, is important. Subject matter and classroom techniques, always of importance, are assuming subordinate positions in proper relation to the goals and processes of education.

The whole structure of the student-teaching experience is undergoing important changes. First, the amount is being steadily increased. Second, a diversity or variety is being introduced, the student operating on more than one level. Third, the experience is no longer limited in the best situations to classroom operations within one room. A total experience within the school and surrounding community is provided. The student participates in all normal activities of the school as an institution, and in the activities of the community around the school. He utilizes community resources, contributes to community purposes. Off-campus experience is being included as a matter of course. Fourth, and basic, there is appearing increasingly an adequate and functional introduction to, and sequence of events in, student teaching. The student teaching is no longer an isolated activity at the end of the training period. It is integrated with other phases of teacher education, may come at various places within the total program, and is developing a series of accompanying activities of its own. Clinie

seminars, individual and group conferences, systematic study of organized materials are now increasingly a part of student-teaching situations. Inevitably textbooks and other documentary materials are being produced to accompany the new departures.

A first-class contribution to this small literature for use in connection with student teaching is found in *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. The whole treatment is sound and modern, and consistently presented throughout the volume. The authors have shown outstanding ability to include a wealth of immediate specific materials without obscuring the underlying theory. The summaries relating theory to practice are among the most valuable now available for either student teachers or experienced practitioners. The editor foresees wide use of this material in basic courses preceding student teaching as well as with the latter phase.

The individual chapters are remarkably even in content and value. Chapter X, *Guiding Group Work* may be noted individually because of the unusual value of the content relating to a problem not too well discussed in the literature. The internal organization of the chapters follows a general outline without being bound or formal. The writing is clear and vivid, designed to stimulate the student to thought on his problems, rather than to supply ready answers. Bibliographies are brief and selective.

WILLIAM H. BURTON

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PART ONE

Induction into Student Teaching

CHAPTER I

Getting Started as a Student Teacher

"Student teaching has been the most valuable of all my professional experiences!" exclaimed one student teacher enthusiastically.

"I just hope the children are learning as much as I am," said another genuinely.

"I'm sorry this semester is over so soon," commented a third sincerely.

"Why don't we do more student teaching?" queried a fourth thoughtfully.

Reactions such as these are typical of the comments made by many student teachers during their first intensive school contacts with children. They are indicative of the satisfying experiences in teaching that now lie ahead of you.

This experience of directed teaching will offer you many stimulating professional opportunities. It will be a time to test theories in action, to develop learning experiences with and for children, to guide children in various aspects of their growth and development, to learn more about how children, as individuals and as groups, react, behave, and achieve in school situations. In addition to these experiences with children, student teaching will provide many opportunities for your own growth, both as a person and as a professional worker. It enables you to learn, through observation, participation, and actual teaching, more about schools: their goals and purposes, their operation, and their organization. In short, student teaching opens up to you very rich experiences in the various aspects of the work of the teacher—experiences which could not be so well achieved in any other way.

Right now probably you know even more about the education of children than you realize. This fact should give you confidence as you start your work in student teaching. You also start with the assurance that those in charge of student teaching at your college believe that you are sufficiently mature, alert, reliable, and creative to entrust the education of a group of children to you. Moreover, in your previous professional college work you have had many experiences and have learned many ideas that will directly help you in meeting this new challenge of making a successful beginning in student teaching. If, in prospect, at this moment, the rôle of teacher seems complex, vague, bewildering, or even a bit dis-

quieting, do not spend your time and energy crossing such bridges before you come to them. You have firm enough foundations and enough insight and equipment to build your own bridges into student teaching if and when you need them.

As you begin the first week of your student teaching, you will encounter stimulating new learning situations. The student teacher who keeps his eyes and ears open begins immediately to learn how modern teachers work with children. He gains greater insight into the daily living of children and teachers at school. He sees professional problems arise, practical procedures applied, and real outcomes achieved. He begins to work out answers to his questions: How does the teacher get children to take turns in discussion? How does the teacher take dictation for an experience-reading chart? How does the teacher use the dandelions which the six-year-old brings as a learning resource? How does the teacher lead the group to accept the sharing contribution of Timmy, who is rejected by his peers?

You are now ready to utilize fully your rich background of preparation. Student teaching, the climax of your professional education, is now your challenge. From the very beginning of your student teaching, may you be able to say, as one student teacher recently put it, "Sure, I'm working hard, but it is worth every minute I put in. In this case hard work pays good dividends!"

YOUR RESPONSIBILITY TO YOURSELF

To be one's best self throughout the student teaching experience is an asset not to be even momentarily underestimated. There is, of course, no one way to be one's best self. Rather, there are several important factors which, when put together, give you important clues not only to the making of a successful beginning in the early days of your student teaching but also to your continuing success as a teacher. The following suggestions concerning your responsibility to yourself are offered to aid you in getting off to a good start.

Your Management of Time. Some student teachers make the mistake of poor planning of their time and placement of their energies while doing student teaching. The wise student teacher who plans well reduces to a minimum other obligations and gives student teaching priority. You will want to carry no more other hours of college work than are necessary. You will need to organize your participation in college extra-curricular activities in such a way that you do not assume unnecessarily major responsibilities in such activities during this time. You will need to plan your social life so that you get adequate and satisfying recreational outlets without letting your social life usurp time and energy needed for your

best work as a teacher. You will want to participate in college functions and personal social life, but you must come to your teaching relaxed and rested and ready to work well with children. You will want to plan your personal reading, correspondence, visiting, play, and the like so that you remain a healthful, alert, well-informed, interesting person. At the same time you will give to your new professional responsibilities the interest, time, and attention so necessary to success in this new rôle. Like the medical intern who keeps prominently in sight the goals toward which he is striving, give generously of yourself in pursuit of accomplishing the high professional competence that comes only through thoughtful, direct, persistent belief in the value of the services which you are able to render.

You recognize that as you progress through the experience of student teaching it is quite natural that in the first weeks of student teaching you will have fewer responsibilities than you will be expected to assume later on. You should not, therefore, jump to the hasty conclusion that you will have more time and energy to put into other personal activities than you expected, for as time goes on, more and more responsibilities in the classroom will become yours.

You will want to think through this matter of a neat balance of time and energy for personal and professional living clearly and sensibly. You will need to budget your time so that you continue to live richly in your personal life and successfully in your professional life as a student teacher.

Your Personal Appearance. As you look back on your own school experience, you will recall the vivid impressions which some teachers' personal appearance made upon you. In some instances, you may have enjoyed going into the room in the morning just to see the teacher who always gave the appearance of having realized how important it is to be well-dressed and well-groomed for so important a responsibility as teaching children. In other instances, you may recall some teacher who left you with the impression that, since the job he was doing was not so very important, he could dress accordingly. With the current emphasis in American life upon social acceptability, modern children are very conscious of attractive, appropriate clothing, good posture, and careful grooming. Modern children want their teachers to meet acceptable standards in personal appearance.

In the first place, you will be well dressed for student teaching if the clothing worn is neat, in good taste, and well styled to help the wearer to be an attractive adult personality. Some clothing quite suitable for going to classes with college classmates might be inappropriate to the school situation where the respect of children and co-workers is so necessary.

You will be suitably dressed for your work in the school if you can answer the following questions in the affirmative:

1. Is your clothing clean and well pressed?
2. Is your clothing practicable for the kinds of activities in which you must engage with the children?
3. Is your clothing attractively harmonious in its color combinations?
4. Is your clothing suitable to your personality—modish, without conspicuously attracting attention to itself?
5. Do you wear comfortable, practical shoes that are regularly cleaned and polished and in good repair?
6. Are all your accessories fresh, neat, and appropriate to school wear?
7. Is the jewelry that you wear in such good taste that it does not draw undue attention to itself?

Clothing selection for your particular student-teaching situation is, first of all, important in making the most of your total personality as a beginning teacher. In clothing selection it will be helpful, too, if you observe, with a constructively critical eye, how the regular teachers in the building to which you are assigned dress for their work with children. Above all, start out regularly for your student teaching with the assurance that, in matters of dress, your appearance clearly indicates that you are ready for the experiences of the day.

You realize that your grooming is equally important to your best personal appearance. Teachers recognize that meticulous personal cleanliness is one effective means of encouraging children to have confidence in them. Teachers, of course, must be willing to mix paints and get their hands into clay and finger paints, for these are matters of teaching competence, not of personal cleanliness. Soap and water or a little turpentine will quickly eradicate these momentary interruptions in good grooming. A smock will prevent soiling clothing.

The teacher's grooming is one indirect way to guide children in their improvement of their personal appearance. If the teacher's hair is clean and well-brushed, if his nails are clean and trim, if his teeth are sparklingly clean, by personal example he can have greater influence upon children in their consideration of matters of grooming.

Attention on the part of the girls should also be given to nail polish and cosmetics. As you consider your grooming, be sure that your nail polish is in conservative good taste and that you have chosen your cosmetics discreetly.

Your posture and carriage is yet another significant aspect of personal appearance. There is something of dynamic healthfulness in your appearance if your carriage is erect and your posture is good. Clothing that otherwise meets acceptable standards of appearance is less attractive if the wearer neglects to give adequate attention to posture. As a teacher, too, your example will frequently be emulated by the children. This is a good time to take inventory and to ask yourself such questions as the following:

1. Do you sit and stand both erectly and comfortably?
2. Do you avoid slouching or leaning or any other such habits that give the impression of fatigue, disinterest, or inertia?
3. Do you stand firmly upon two feet, avoiding such habits as throwing your weight on one foot or crossing your feet while you stand?
4. Do you hold your head erect, so that you look directly at those to whom you speak?

The student teacher who stands up, sits up, walks with assurance—and really feels this assurance—is more likely to earn and to hold the attention of the group of children with whom he works.

Your Personal Manner. While it is true that each student teacher must be his own best self, while there is no one yardstick for personal manner, there are some clues which will aid you in making a good start in your student teaching. The student teacher who seems to make the most successful beginning is one who is a mature, alert, natural person. He is neither too tense, too retiring, nor too effusive. He is friendly, in his own best manner of being friendly. He is courteous and sensitive in his relations with others. He does not make demands but he does seek earnestly to identify himself coöperatively with those with whom he works. He is self-possessed without being self-satisfied. He finds his greatest security in intelligent adaptability. And, in his own way, he utilizes his sense of humor to aid him in establishing rapport in a new situation, in keeping his perspective on the new work which he is undertaking.

If you are natural, thoughtful, courteous, and socially sensitive in your first contacts with those with whom you work in student teaching, you will not only earn their respect but also you will gain for yourself their earnest desire to help you to grow in teaching competence.

Your Reliability. To meet responsibilities promptly, punctually, and willingly is a personal asset that will aid you materially in your work in student teaching. To be on time for all appointments, to have plans and materials ready punctually, and to recognize that the welfare of others is involved in your meeting of responsibilities with dispatch will be important evidences of your professional readiness to work in a school. The person who is careless about time, is erratic in work habits, is thoughtless about inconveniencing others will fail to get a good start in student teaching.

No other person can make you a reliable person; that you must do for yourself. The first step in reliability is to understand thoroughly what is expected of you. Then you can so organize your work as to meet your new tasks with efficiency and despatch. And the creative student teacher begins early not only to meet the required tasks but also seeks out ways to be of service in the school situation in which he is working.

Specifically, the reliable student teacher is one who is punctual in his

attendance at the school, meets the time routines of the school with regularity, gets to conferences regularly and punctually, plans his work well in advance of deadlines, and has the instructional materials which he plans to use ready for presentation at the appropriate time. Operationally he proves that he is a dependable worker.

The reliable student teacher also is considerate of others. If for any reason he must be absent from school, he calls those involved in the shift of plans at the earliest appropriate moment so that the work he had planned to do with children is not left at "loose ends" because of his negligence. If he needs assistance in carrying out responsibilities, he seeks that aid well in advance of the time for meeting the assigned task. While in the life of everyone emergencies do arise, the mature student teacher meets these emergencies realistically.

Your Voice. Good voice quality is particularly valuable to a teacher. In the first place, the example of good speech for and with children is important. In the second place, your voice may be helpful in stimulating children to think. In the third place, your voice will aid you in matters of discipline. Some teachers' voices are over-stimulating; they cause children to become fatigued, or restless, or over-excited. In the fourth place, a pleasing voice adds to the attractiveness of your total professional personality.

There are known voice qualities which you as a student teacher should work to achieve. Some of the most significant of such voice qualities are the following:

1. Variety in pitch, appropriate to the situation
2. Rich and colorful cadence
3. Modulation to group needs
4. Resonance that makes your voice pleasant to live with
5. Tempo that is appropriate to the immediate situation.

Some voice characteristics which you will want to avoid are these:

1. Too high in pitch
2. Too low in pitch
3. Nasality
4. Strain
5. Monotony
6. Breathiness.

Some speech mannerisms which you may unwittingly have developed and which you can correct with attentive practice are these:

1. Too rapid speech
2. Drawl
3. Lisp
4. Speech affectations.

As you begin your student teaching, if you do not attempt to rationalize your voice idiosyncrasies, those with whom you work will be able to help you in the cultivation of a voice that is pleasing, colorful, and dynamic. Do not hesitate to ask for help in terms of specific voice peculiarities. Moreover, by using modern recording devices, try to hear your own voice so that you can note your strengths and weaknesses and develop a self-initiated program of voice improvement.

Your English Expression. In both oral and written expression you will need to show satisfactory proficiency. In your oral expression you will again be an example to the children whom you teach. Your attention to correct pronunciation and clear enunciation will be particularly noticeable. Correct usage, on the level of good informal English, will be a standard of oral expression to maintain. Trite expressions will add little to your oral effectiveness, and any use you make of slang will need to be judicious. Your use of a well-selected vocabulary and the cultivation of colorful, creative patterns of oral expression will also be a distinguishing mark of your competence in the use of your mother tongue.

In written expression, too, you will need to demonstrate facility. The clear, concise communication of ideas in acceptable forms of written expression will be expected of you. In addition, you should consistently demonstrate adequate control over the skills of written communication: sentence structure, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and acceptable usage.

Your Handwriting. Teachers at all levels in the elementary school should demonstrate adequate skill in both manuscript and cursive writing. Your letter formations should be correct in size, shape, and general formation. You will need to develop sufficient speed in both forms of writing, and your writing should have about it the slant, spacing, and rhythm that makes your handwriting worthy of emulation by the children whom you teach. Modern elementary schools make wide use of experience-reading charts. Your proficiency in constructing these charts is dependent upon your ability to use manuscript writing well. Since making experience charts is time-consuming, you will need to provide for practice early in your student teaching.

Many student teachers find chalkboard writing a new experience. You will be using chalkboards for many kinds of work. From the beginning of your student teaching you will want to plan time to practice chalkboard writing so that in alignment, speed, rhythm, and slant you will be able to work efficiently, quickly, and correctly at the chalkboard as the need arises.

Your Attitude toward Criticism. During your student-teaching experience you will rightfully expect assistance in your growth in teaching power. Constructive criticism of your work is an important way in which

you can get help in strengthening your professional competences. Criticism is guidance in that it points out to you lines of direction for your own self-evaluation of your growth in various aspects of your work.

You will profit most from your student-teaching experience if you seek out constructive criticism. Such criticism must be weighed thoughtfully in the light of your own background of experience and the specific situation in which the criticism is given. You will want to discuss with your college supervisor the constructive criticisms that have come to you so that you will thoroughly understand them and their implications for your future work.

To get aid regularly in the evaluation of your work will help you to achieve optimum growth during your period of student teaching. Moreover, do not hesitate to take your problems to your supervisor; but in so doing, be sure you have in advance clearly defined what the problem is and what you think you could do about it. Then remember, too, that this is your teaching and the suggestions made to you are not for the purpose of stylizing or formalizing your teaching procedures but rather are guide posts which may be helpful to you in your own creative solution of your problems.

To see clearly and unemotionally at each step of the way your strengths and weaknesses will be of material benefit to you. To utilize student teaching as an opportunity for growth in personal qualities that make you a dynamic, attractive personality will enhance the values of this experience for you.

YOUR RELATIONS WITH CO-WORKERS

Much of your success in student teaching depends on the quality of your relations with other people. A successful beginning in student teaching is in great measure dependent upon your early understanding of those persons with whom you will be working most intimately and the ways in which your work impinges upon theirs. You realize that in teaching one does not individualistically "run his own show." Rather, at each step of the way, coöperative planning for transitional steps forward, with each teacher as a member of the professional team, is the only way to proceed if sound and healthy human relationships are to be achieved.

Knowing the Principal. The importance of the rôle of the principal in the school in which you teach must be recognized. He has the administrative responsibility for the effective running of the school as a whole. To him and through him problems of all-school policy are channeled.

As you begin your work, get to know your principal and to understand his rôle in the school. Learn as quickly as possible the kinds of school activities that have direct relation to his function and the accepted ways of working with the principal's office in the building in which you teach.

Much of this information you can obtain from your critic teacher. Here are some clues to aid you in learning to cooperate appropriately with the principal:

1. What are the general regulations in the building which require the principal's immediate attention?
2. What are the reports for which you may be responsible that must clear through the principal's office?
3. What are the procedures for taking children on educational trips, for using moving picture equipment, radios, and the like?
4. What are the regulations in regard to parents taking their children from school while it is in session?
5. What are the procedures for getting additional equipment and supplies?
6. What is the administrative plan for caring for emergencies, such as illness, the need for first aid, and so forth?
7. What other administrative services are provided in the building in which you teach?
8. What are the expectations or policies in regard to student-teacher conferences with the principal?

If from the very beginning you know the general administrative organization within which you will be working, you will be recognized as a reliable co-worker in the school. You will also avoid administrative blunders in achieving your purposes as you work with children.

Understanding Your Critic Teacher. The person with whom you will work most intimately is your critic teacher. With him you will want to clarify your working relations just as soon as possible. Try immediately to understand the frame of reference within which he works. Recognize that his responsibility is first to the children whom he teaches, and through them to you. Realize that your freedom in his classroom is earned freedom, that as you prove your reliability and competence you earn independence in your teaching.

From the very beginning you will want to know what the critic teacher believes is your rôle in this situation and what your responsibilities are. You will need to know the procedures to be used in your induction into this new experience. You will need to know the room practices that will affect your teaching.

As you confer with your critic teacher in the early days of your student teaching, ask those pertinent questions which will aid in your orientation to the teaching situation. Discuss with him pertinent topics which will help you to understand your critic teacher and his ways of working so that you may establish good rapport with this person with whom you will be so closely associated in your student-teaching experience.

Knowing Other Staff Members. There are other teachers and other school workers, such as physicians, dentists, nurses, psychologists, and librarians, whom you will want to know as co-workers. Learn their names

as soon as possible and understand their relationships to the room group whom you teach.

Particularly will you need to understand your relations to such special teachers as music teachers, art teachers, and physical-education teachers who also work with the children in your room. What services do they give? What are their schedules? What responsibilities will you have in preparing for their visits? What are your responsibilities while they are in the room? How shall you plan so that things run smoothly should the special teacher be delayed or have to miss the regularly assigned periods? What expert assistance can you legitimately ask of the special teacher in carrying forward particular activities in the unit of work in progress under your guidance?

As you study the interrelationships of the staff members in the school in which you work, you will also be able to see the ways in which you too can function coöperatively with these people for the welfare of the children whom you teach.

Knowing the Custodians. The building custodians are yet other persons to come to know immediately. Know them by name rather than as "the janitors." Find out what their responsibilities in your room are and try to be sensibly considerate of them and friendly. Frequently the custodians exert considerable educational influence on the boys and girls in the school, and surely they can materially aid you in your work with children. By respecting them as human personalities, by enlisting their coöperative support in enterprises that need their assistance, you will be fostering good school relations and good educational experiences for boys and girls.

Knowing the Parents. Since parents are co-workers with teachers in the education of their children, you will want to utilize whatever opportunities are available for knowing better the parents of the children whom you teach. Your critic teacher will help you in this. If parents visit the room, the critic teacher will see that you have the opportunity to meet them. If parents attend assemblies or special school programs, he will again aid you in knowing the fathers and mothers of the children with whom you work. If there is a room-mothers organization, he will invite you to attend. If there is a Parent-Teacher Association or some other parent organization, he will introduce you to the parents of the children whom you will teach. When your group is taking an educational trip, you will have an opportunity to come to know better those parents who assist in the trip taking.

The better you know the parents, the more insight you will have into the home backgrounds, the greater will be your understanding of how best to guide the learning of these particular children. You will thus early experience the values of close home-school relations and the need for understanding individual children in the light of their home environments.

Knowing Other Student Teachers. There is much one can learn from his peer group. There is real satisfaction in knowing other student teachers who, like yourself, are experiencing their induction into teaching. There will be many opportunities coöperatively to share with fellow student teachers ideas, solutions to problems, and instructional materials. If you plan consciously to make informal contacts with other student teachers, your student teaching will be enriched by extending such acquaintances, by working together and learning from each other, and by identifying yourself with others who also are learning to guide children in their growth and development.

YOUR RESPONSIBILITIES IN LEARNING SCHOOL PRACTICES

To get a good start in this new situation you will need to understand rather specifically the pattern of school practices within which you will be working. No two schools are ever exactly alike even though they are within the same school system. Each staff must work out for their school what seems best for their particular children, in relation to the physical plant, the general administrative practices of the school system as a whole, and the needs of the community in which the school is located. Such practices will not be optional with you. Rather, it will be your responsibility to learn what such practices are and to plan how best to utilize them for the growth and development of the children whom you teach.

Time Factors Involved. All schools operate within the limitations of regularly scheduled time factors which you will need to understand so that you can teach children to meet their responsibilities for appointments. To aid you in familiarizing yourself with school practices in regard to time, here are some questions that you will need to answer:

1. When does school begin?
2. When may children come into the building at the beginning of a session?
3. When is a child considered tardy?
4. If the school has lunch orders, school banking, or such regularly scheduled special reports, what are the deadlines to be met?
5. What are the time limits involved in play periods?
6. When will special teachers be working with the children?
7. When are school assemblies, student-council meetings, movies, mid-day lunch, and the like scheduled?
8. What are the general time allotments for various activities in the room?
9. What are the regularly scheduled times for dismissal?
10. What other time factors are involved in the school in which you teach?

For the efficient operation of the school as a whole, and for your own successful beginning, punctual attention to school practices with regard to time will be expected of you.

School Routines Followed. When you arrive at the school, certain school routines will already be familiar to the children and it will be your responsibility to familiarize yourself with these routines which the children accept. To guide you in quickly familiarizing yourself with routine school practices, find the answers to such questions as the following:

1. What are the school practices with regard to corridors, group movement within the building, and play space on the playground?
2. What are the procedures for care of wraps, books, and the children's personal belongings?
3. What are the routines followed at mid-day lunch periods, lavatory periods, and the like?
4. What are the building plans followed in fire drills?
5. What are the general plans regularly utilized at assembly programs?
6. What other school routines are children expected to know and follow?

Special Duties to Be Assumed. There are also assigned duties for which the teachers in a building are responsible. You may be asked to assist in certain duties during the period of your student teaching. Special duties are another opportunity to learn how schools operate, how to work with other teachers, and how to learn more about children. Some questions which will aid you in learning about the special duties of teachers follow:

1. What are the teacher's responsibilities before and after school?
2. What are the responsibilities of teachers for outdoor and indoor play periods?
3. What are the teacher's duties at lunch periods?
4. What are the teacher's responsibilities for such school activities as assembly programs, student-council activities, special-interest groups, holiday activities, parent programs, and the like?
5. What are the other special duties of teachers in the building in which you teach?

Reports to Be Kept. Every school has necessary reports to be kept, and your early acquaintance with the report forms utilized will be helpful to you in getting a well-rounded picture of your teaching situation and will help you to anticipate what may be asked of you with regard to record-keeping and reporting. The following questions may help you to orient yourself concerning records and reports with which you will need to be acquainted:

1. How are the attendance reports to be kept in the room where you teach?
2. What forms are used for students transferring from one school to another?
3. What kinds of data are included in the cumulative records of individual children?
4. How are test records kept in this building?
5. What records of curriculum experiences of groups of children are kept in this school?
6. What is the form of the report to parents which this school sends out?
7. What other records and reports are regularly utilized in this building?

If you study these reporting and recording devices, you can plan from the beginning how to get these tasks done efficiently and competently. You will also see these instruments in their proper perspective and thus save much time and energy for the planning of your work with and for children.

Conference Plans to Be Arranged. As has already been indicated, your growth in teaching will require the active assistance of those who are responsible for the supervision of your work. Therefore you will want to make plans for conferences from the start. Again, each school will have its own procedures for such conferences and it will be well to acquaint yourself with these procedures at this time. Some questions which deal with conference plans follow:

1. What are the times available for conferences with your critic teacher?
2. What other conference sessions will you be expected to attend?
3. When and where will these conferences be held?
4. What preparations for conferences will you be expected to make?
5. With what topics or problems will the conferences deal?
6. What other information concerning conference plans is important for you to have at this time?

In your early conferences you will have the opportunity to begin your long-range planning so that you will be well prepared to take over the actual work involved in teaching. You will have a chance to learn the backgrounds of the present work which the children are doing. You will be able to get some insight into the kinds of planning which you will be expected to do. And you will certainly find the opportunity for assistance in matters of personal adjustment to the situation in which you have been placed. The alert student teacher is one who makes the most of these early conferences by asking questions that will help him in becoming well oriented and in looking ahead to the various aspects of his work throughout the entire period of student teaching.

YOUR BEGINNING PARTICIPATION IN THE LIFE OF THE ROOM

If from the very beginning you can unobtrusively make yourself a contributor to the life of the room, you will more readily become identified as a participating member of the group with whom you will work. Even before you begin to work directly with the children there are many things which you can be doing that are valuable types of participation. In this way too you are helping yourself make the adjustment to a new type of experience.

Learning the Children's Names. Children, like adults, feel the need to be recognized as individuals. They will want you quickly to identify them by their names. Within the first week you should be able to call all the

children in the room by name. Many student teachers have found it effective to concentrate upon the total personality of each child, which helps them identify the child's name with that personality. It helps some people to study the roster of children's names. If you check yourself daily to see how many of the children you now know, your progress will be rapid. When you are able to recognize all the children in the room by their first and last names, you will have made the first step toward studying these children as individuals.

Learning Where Materials Are Kept. As you are becoming oriented in your new situation, you will be able to observe where and how materials and equipment are kept in the room. You will also be able to take at least a quick inventory of what is available for use with children and begin to consider how you will be able to assist in the care of such materials and equipment and how you will be able to supplement what is available.

Familiarizing Yourself with Instructional Materials. Your critic teacher will make available to you the instructional materials which are being used in the room. As you take some of these learning materials home to study, you will more quickly become familiar with their strengths and weaknesses. Moreover, in this way you will be able to ascertain what the children have worked upon before your arrival and what may follow after you leave. You will also begin to see ways in which you can be a contributor to the work of the room by bringing in such supplementary materials as books, pamphlets, pictures, models, and the like which will be valuable in the present on-going activities of the children.

Familiarizing Yourself with Sources of Professional Aid. Successful teaching means that the teacher knows where the resources are that can be utilized in working with children. It will be wise for you to make a well-ordered list of various kinds of resources which may be helpful when you take over the major responsibilities of teaching. While this topic will be discussed in greater detail later, you cannot begin too soon to plan how you will catalog such references to resources.

In addition to lists of resources such as persons, places, and things, you will find illustrative materials—pictures, graphs, cartoons, maps, models, and other such things—very usable in your teaching. Such materials should be critically selected and should be so organized that they will be readily available when the need for them arises. If you begin such a collection now, you will, by the end of your student teaching, have a fine collection of suggested resources for use during your first year of teaching.

As another aid to success in beginning your student teaching, investigate the professional literature which will help you in getting a good start. There may be curriculum guides which the school itself has produced. There are certainly professional books which are available to you at this time. Such magazines as *Childhood Education*, *Educational Leader-*

ship, Progressive Education, Understanding the Child, and Elementary English will be other professional aids with which you should be familiar throughout your student teaching.

Assuming Responsibilities Gradually. To accustom yourself to working with the children, you will undoubtedly want to add to your duties gradually. Your first tasks, therefore, should be those that necessarily give you a part in the life of the room but which do not entail major responsibility. The rate at which you will assume responsibility will be decided largely in terms of what is best for the children and for you. You will know best how, in terms of your own talents and abilities, you can begin to participate. Here are some suggestions which other student teachers have used to begin to know the group:

1. Help the children with their wraps or with their care of materials.
2. Place on bulletin boards, with the assistance of a group of children, materials appropriate to the work of the room.
3. Play the piano for songs, rhythms, and singing games.
4. Teach the children new games for either indoor or outdoor recess.
5. Read to the children appropriate stories or poems.
6. Work with individual children who need particular assistance.
7. Check papers to discover the needs in skills of individual children.
8. Prepare pertinent informational or technical material to share with the children.
9. Bring in visual aids or recordings that are pertinent to the studies being carried on.

Such types of early participation will help you to feel secure and adequate when you begin to assume the major responsibilities for teaching a group of children and will help you to begin your self-evaluation so that you can grow as rapidly as possible in your teaching abilities.

YOUR FIRST DAY IN THE SCHOOL

The very first day in the school is sometimes difficult for the student teacher because he does not quite know what to expect of this new experience. This need not be the case if you prepare yourself well for the very first hours of your student teaching. There are some specific ways by which you can make the first day successful.

Getting Started Early. You might better arrive too early than too late the first day. Certainly you do not want to arrive breathless, hurried, tense, or apologetic. You can work out your time schedule more exactly after once you have been to the school. Allow yourself those extra thirty minutes which will make the difference between being well established before the children arrive and coming in, uncomfortably, with them at the "last bell."

Maintaining Self-Confidence. In addition to being unhurried, keep your self-confidence by having the security that you are appropriately dressed and well-groomed for the occasion. Take with you your notebook and pen so that you will not have to rely totally on your memory for the instructions which may be given you the first day. Realize that you may have to have help in finding your room; but do not hesitate to ask for assistance, for you are being expected and you will be welcome.

Introducing Yourself with Poise. In most situations it is expected that you will first report to the principal's office, from whence you will be taken to your room. In other situations you may be expected to go directly to the room yourself. In either instance, be sure to introduce yourself simply and distinctly, and meet each phase of these initial contacts with the school staff with poise and self-possession.

Locating Your Place in the Classroom. From the very beginning you should know where to keep your wraps, books and equipment, and your purse. Learn early that it is unwise for your purse to be left carelessly lying about, for purses constitute an unnecessary temptation to some children. Learn to put all your materials neatly in their appropriate places so that you do not give the appearance of being only temporarily assigned to the room.

Making First Contacts with Children. The children will be anxious to know who you are. If you answer their questions simply, directly, and courteously they will be well satisfied. You will not want to overdo these first relations with children. Do not force yourself upon them. Rather, you will be wise to let the children make the first steps in getting acquainted. Let your relations with them grow naturally out of your working together.

Being as Unobtrusive as Possible. Your first appearance in the room should necessitate only a minimum of change in the usual program and procedures of the school. Your first day will demand of you thoughtful self-control in making yourself appropriately unobtrusive but not aloof from the particular activities in which the children are engaged. Your critic teacher will be ready to assist you in discovering how you may participate most effectively this first day in the life of the room.

Anticipating the First Week. Before you leave the school the first day, ask about your participation for the second day so that you will know what will be expected of you and how best you can make preparations for the remainder of the week. Thus you are inducted into the life of the room and of the school with the least possible uncertainty, and with increased understanding of your rôle throughout the first weeks of student teaching.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

Throughout this book you will have many opportunities to evaluate your own work, for effectual evaluation is a continuous process that implies one's weighing of his planning and acting in terms of purposes, goals, and values that he holds. At the end of each chapter, specifically, there will appear some criteria for your individual inventory of your progress in student teaching. Whether or not these criteria are helpful is dependent upon the ways in which you use them. If you use them as discrete or isolated items, if you rationalize your behavior, if you feel guilty about your shortcomings, if you thoughtlessly and mechanically go through them, if you are too introspective, they can be of little value to you. If, on the other hand, you approach them as unemotionally as possible, if you consider them guides to point future directions for planning and action, if you consider them interrelatedly, if you thoughtfully and as objectively as possible face up to them, these criteria can help you independently to recognize strengths, oversights, weaknesses, improvements, and thus aid you in charting your own plans for an integrated forward march in general teaching competence.

Perhaps in conference with your critic teacher you will want to consider some aspects of these criteria for self-evaluation. You may want to get others' judgments on some of these criteria as checks upon your own appraisal. However you use these criteria, be sure that you are taking a forward rather than a backward look.

1. Your Personal Qualifications:

As you look at yourself, in the light of your first week of student teaching, what personal strengths have you been able to demonstrate? What, in the next weeks, do you plan to do to develop further in personal qualities?

2. Your Acquaintance with Co-workers:

Who are the co-workers in the school with whom you will be most closely associated? What are their duties and responsibilities? What working relationships with them have you been able to establish? What are to be your chief learnings in this respect in the next weeks?

3. Your Understanding of School Practices:

State specifically your accomplishments in learning the general practices of the school in which you are located. Just as specifically, what next do you need to know about school practices to work most effectively in this situation?

4. Your Contributions to the Life of the Room:

Make a list of your contributions to the life of the room to date. What else do you now see that you might have done? Specifically, what next do you intend to do in participation, and why are these your next choices?

5. *Your First Day of Student Teaching:*

Evaluate your experiences of the first day in the school. What did you do most successfully and how do you analyze the reasons for doing these things well? If you were doing it over, how would you change what you did the first day? Why would you make these changes?

6. *Your General Consideration of Getting Started:*

In general, how have you been most successful in getting started in your student teaching? What questions and problems at this time are uppermost in your thinking about the weeks ahead? How do you plan to get help on these problems and questions? Which of these will require the assistance of others? Which will demand your own individual initiative?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

At the end of each chapter, following the criteria for self-evaluation, you will find some questions or statements for discussion in group situations. They are intended as "starters" of discussion on pivotal ideas in considering teaching as a profession. They are included to encourage a group of student teachers to pool their best thinking on problems pertaining to the guidance of children's learning experiences. Talking over such questions as these should eventuate in the sharing of many practical proposals that will be helpful both immediately and for your future teaching.

1. As you recall the teachers whom you had in elementary school, what personal qualities made them successful with children? Why?

2. In what ways is teaching like acting in a stage production? Different from acting?

3. "Time is what you do with it" and "A stitch in time saves nine" are two familiar old sayings. How do they apply to the work of the teacher in the classroom? In planning one's personal living as a teacher?

4. What do you recommend as the best ways that you have found to establish rapport with children?

5. A person recently said, "A new job is a new challenge." What specifically can one do to meet successfully the challenge of a new teaching position?

6. As you look back to your first day of student teaching, what concrete suggestions do you now have with reference to the teacher's preparation for his first day of school each year?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Throughout this book, at the end of each chapter, you will find annotated suggestions for further reading. These suggestions are included to give you the opportunity critically to compare other writers' viewpoints with those of the authors of this book, to give you sources where you can find further amplifications of topics discussed, and to point out to you further reading on topics on which you recognize need for further help. These suggestions can be helpful to you only if you read them

critically, discuss them thoughtfully with others, and sift out of them those ideas that are pertinent to your needs.

ADAMS, Fay, *Educating America's Children* (New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1946).

In this book you will find Chapter 2, which is entitled "When Is the Teacher Ready to Teach?" helpful in pointing up types of teacher responsibilities both to yourself and to those with whom you work.

American Council on Education, *Teachers for Our Times* (Washington, D.C., The Council, 1944).

On pages 154 through 175 of this book will be found a discussion of the qualities needed in teachers, as this commission sees them.

EVANS, EVA KNOX, *So You're Going to Teach* (Chicago, Julius Rosenwald Fund, 1943).

This fifty-one page pamphlet delightfully yet critically will help you interpret your rôle as a beginning student teacher.

HILDEBRITH, Gertrude, *Child Growth through Education* (New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1948).

Chapter 23, on the teacher's part in the guidance of learning, is an interesting orientation to what your influence on children may be.

HOCKETT, John A. and JACOBSEN, E. W., *Modern Practices in the Elementary School* (Boston, Ginn and Company, 1943).

A practical presentation of the teacher's personal and professional resources can be found in Chapter X.

John Dewey Society, *The Teacher and Society, First Yearbook* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1937).

While many chapters in this yearbook will be stimulating reading, Chapter IV, which discusses the teacher as a person, Chapter V, on the teacher at work, and Chapter VI, on the teacher and the school system, are particularly pertinent as you begin your student teaching.

LAMB, Marion M., *Your First Year of Teaching* (Cincinnati, South-Western Publishing Co., 1939).

This monograph of thirty-five pages presents in a witty, informal manner the teacher's problems of adjustment in teaching.

REEDER, Ward G., *A First Course in Education* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1943).

On pages 502 through 522 you will find, succinctly stated, a discussion of qualifications needed by the teacher of today.

SAUCIER, W.A., *Theory and Practice in the Elementary School* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1941).

Chapter XVI in this book discusses the rôle of the teacher in modern education. This chapter should help you in your orientation to your rôle as a student teacher.

SCHORLING, Raleigh, *Student Teaching* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1940).

In this book Chapter I deals realistically with the problem of getting started as a student teacher. Also on pages 315 through 319 are helpful check lists on teacher personality, personal appearance, voice and speech.

CHAPTER II

Learning From Your Observations

The student teacher who makes the best start is one who recognizes the values of alert, perceptive observation. He knows the pertinent things for which to look. He gets a comprehensive view of the whole school and thus can plan more intelligently for his part in it. Some who are beginning to teach for the first time may think that observation is completed when student teaching begins. If so, they miss valuable opportunities to broaden their understandings. At the same time, student teachers must avoid temptation to concentrate merely on the details of actual classroom teaching. Such concentration tends to result in a narrow view of the job and its opportunities.

Everything that happens during student teaching is an opportunity for useful learning. The community setting of the school, the school itself, the classroom and the things in it all have a bearing on the kind of teaching which will be most effective. Careful observations, calmly made and accurately recorded, help the student teacher to avoid an awkward period of fitting into the life of the classroom and the school. These observations help in learning early the type of program, in finding helpful things to do, and in making adjustments to the personalities of the teaching staff, administrators, and children. The student teacher who observes broadly and learns from his observations is helped in making a smooth start.

OBSERVING THE SCHOOL

A great deal can be learned from observing the school itself. It offers clues to what the educational program is, to what it should and could be. The school is not just a large frame building with clapboard sides or a pile of brick and mortar. Real, live children troop through its corridors and work in its classrooms. Teachers work there with children. It is a school. It houses the educational enterprise of a community.

Observation is important, but a busy student teacher can spend only part of his time in such activity. In order to help you make the best use of the time you have for observing, the following features of the school are called to your attention.

The Outside Appearance. Hurrying to his assignment on the first day, the student teacher may see the building only as a place within which he

will do his student teaching. The outside appearance of the school gives some evidence of the community's regard for its school system, of the care taken of the school, and of the challenge faced by the school staff.

It will be a few minutes well spent if the student teacher puts aside his haste, slows up, and looks the place over carefully before entering. His teaching will be affected by many influences and factors outside the walls of the building. To help you make an effective observation of the outside of the school, the following items are suggested for your first attention:

1. What is the size of the building?
2. Of what materials is it constructed?
3. Approximately how old is the structure?
4. What is the architectural design of the school?
5. What is the condition of the building: outside walls, roof, windows, walks, and so on?
6. What is the appearance of the grounds? Are they landscaped? Is there a lawn? Does the lawn contain grassy areas, shrubbery, and flowers?
7. What general impression does the building make upon you?

The Location of the Building. Almost all of the learning activities of a school are affected by its location. The teachers in a school building in a factory district or on a busy thoroughfare have different problems from those whose school is in a quiet residential district, near a park or on a campus.

In examining your school, consider the following questions:

1. How large is the school lot? Is it fenced?
2. Where is the building located on its lot?
3. What streets border the school lot? Are they thoroughfares open to heavy traffic?
4. Are school entrances dangerously close to streets?
5. Is the school near stores or shops?
6. How close is the building to a railroad?
7. Are there any dangerous areas near, such as caves, quarries, or bodies of water?

The Playground. The playground is an important part of the educational plant. Not only do children use it for necessary exercise, relaxation and play, but many important qualities of citizenship are developed there also. Sportsmanlike conduct, fair play, the taking of turns, and the sharing of equipment and opportunities all are learned on the playground as well as in the classroom.

You will have a good idea of the extent to which the playground may be useful if you notice such features as these:

1. Is the playground large enough for organized games?
2. Is it located adjacent to the building, in a quiet place, providing both sunshine and shade?

3. Is the play area free from obstructions?
4. Is the surface of the playground suitable?
5. Is there adequate equipment, safely located?
6. Does the playground have a water fountain?
7. Does the playground appear used and well-kept?

The Interior of the Building. All school buildings have limitations, no matter how new or elaborate they are. Keen observation can help you detect these limitations, in order to adjust to them. However, all school buildings have assets, no matter how old the buildings are. New buildings will have laboratories and other special rooms, but old buildings almost always have large classrooms. Your observations will help you recognize the good features so that you may plan ways to make the most of them in your teaching.

You will need to acquaint yourself thoroughly with the inside of the building if you are to make full use of available assets. The following questions are presented as an aid in getting a clear idea of the interior of the building in a short time:

1. How many corridors are there?
2. Are the corridors wide and well located?
3. How many stairways are there for each floor?
4. Are the stairways wide and safe?
5. What fire protection is offered, such as convenient, well-marked alarms and exits, extinguishers, and fire escapes?
6. How many classrooms are there in the building and how are they arranged?
7. What is the type and condition of the flooring?
8. What are the provisions for natural and artificial lighting? Is there adequate light wherever needed?
9. What is the condition of wall surfaces? Are the walls or ceilings sound-conditioned?
10. Are there display spaces for children's work? How are they used?
11. Is there evidence of care and protection, or misuse, of the physical plant on the part of the children?

The Special Rooms. As the activities included in teaching extend increasingly beyond classroom walls, the special rooms of the school become more important. Every school has some special rooms, if only a broom closet and a coal bin! Most elementary schools have an administrative office, an auditorium, and a supply room. Modern, well-equipped buildings have a number of special rooms to complement the regular classrooms and aid in providing a broadly comprehensive educational program.

You will need to know, as soon as you begin your student teaching, what special rooms the school affords. In examining the rooms, you should note their location, size, lighting, furniture and equipment, and other features which affect their usefulness to you in your teaching.

Evidences of the use and care of the rooms will help indicate the kind of educational program carried on in the school. The rooms most frequently provided in elementary schools are those listed below:

1. The school office: Is it an attractive, friendly place?
2. The teachers' rooms: Are they used for rest and relaxation?
3. The auditorium: Is it used regularly, in the educational program of each classroom group?
4. The library: How well equipped is the library for the work of the school? What librarian service is provided?
5. The gymnasium: Is the gymnasium regularly available to all grade groups?
6. The cafeteria or lunch room: How is this aspect of the school program operated?
7. The household-arts room: What opportunities does this room offer you in your student teaching?
8. The art room: Is the art room equipped for a variety of arts and crafts experiences for children? Is it used regularly by all children?
9. The music room: What groups of children use the music room, and for what purposes?
10. The science laboratory: Is this room used for actual work and study or as a museum, for display purposes?
11. The supply rooms: Do the supply rooms seem to be adequate for the needs of the school?
12. The teachers' work room: Is it freely used by the teaching staff in preparing their materials?
13. The clinic: Does the school have rooms for physician and nurse? Are they properly equipped and used?
14. Other special rooms: Does the school have a room with cots for children who need extra rest, conference rooms, student-teaching rooms, or additional rooms for other services?

There are few student teachers who will be in buildings having all of the special rooms mentioned above. Where one or more of the special rooms are not provided, other arrangements must be made for those functions or the educational program will suffer. As you note the absence of certain rooms, a lunch room or science laboratory for example, you should inquire how the needs of children for such experiences are met, what substitute facilities have been developed.

The General Atmosphere of the School. No matter how fine the building or how elaborate its facilities, it may not be a good school. On the other hand, a building may lack many accessories and yet be a fine school for the living, learning, and growing of children. You cannot understand and appreciate the educational atmosphere of a school merely by counting rooms or adding items on a building score-card. You can get some idea from appearances, the attractive arrangement of learning materials, the uses made of equipment available, and the evidences of care bestowed upon the school by the people in it.

Your emotional reaction to the total school environment may be your most useful indication of whether or not the school is a good place for learning and teaching. During your first few days in school there are so many things to learn that you may feel slightly overwhelmed. Do not worry about this! You will soon become adjusted to the situation. In the meantime, you should keep an open mind concerning the physical surroundings and weigh them in relation to the general atmosphere of the school. In summarizing the general atmosphere of your school, ask yourself such questions as these:

1. Are the children in the school happy and relaxed?
2. What are the children's attitudes toward their teachers, the teachers of other groups, the principal, the custodian, the visitors—and toward student teachers?
3. What attitudes do members of the staff have toward their work, the children, each other?
4. What evidences are there, in the physical plant itself, of warm interest in human relationships?
5. What evidences have you that people in the school are interested in you?

OBSERVING THE COMMUNITY

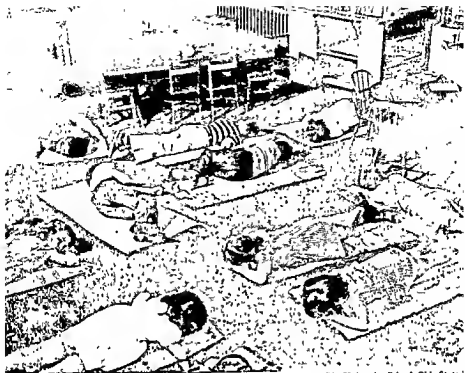
Education is essentially a social enterprise. An educational program should be determined largely on the basis of the needs of the social group, modified in terms of individuals. Through careful observation of the school community the student teacher will learn and more clearly understand many of the needs of the children. A general understanding of the nature of the community in which the school is located will sharpen the picture of the school's responsibilities and opportunities.

A community is a complex social organism. The mores, values, pressures, and social stratifications of a community affect the school tremendously. You will not have time, during the period of student teaching, to make a thorough educational and sociological survey. However, there are certain characteristics of the school community which you need to discover if you are to understand the challenges of the school in which you are teaching.

The Type of Community. Many of the special problems faced by teachers are determined by the kind of community which the school serves. The backgrounds, social development, and educational needs of children in a rural community differ in many ways from those of children in an industrial community or in a wealthy residential suburb, for example.

The following are some of the factors to consider in determining the type of community in which your school is located:

1. What is the location of the school community? Is it rural, in a small town, or in a large city?

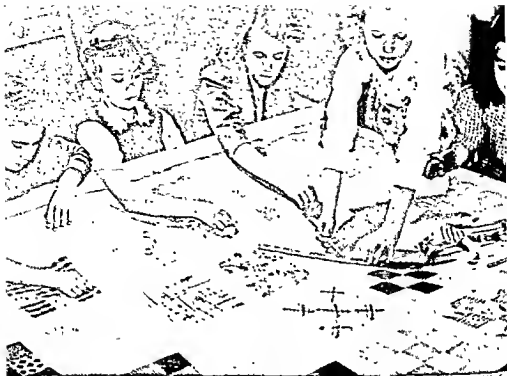


The University School, Ohio State U.

'On my very first day of student teaching, I saw how satisfying working with children can be.'

Detroit, Mich., Pub



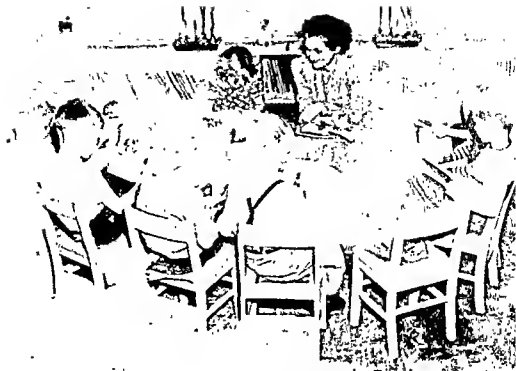


Oklahoma City, Okla., Public S.

"In my observation, I've learned to study children both as individuals and as groups."



City of New York, Public S.



Demonstration School, Mississippi State College for Women

"I found that observation and participation go hand-in-hand. My participation grew so naturally out of my observation."

Campus Elementary School, San Diego, Calif., State College





Dattle Creek, Mich., Public School

"I began participating as soon as possible. The children accepted me and appreciated what I did with them."



Long Beach, Calif., Public School

2. If located in a large city, is it in an industrial section, business section, deteriorating residential section, or suburb?
3. If you are in a campus school, what community does it serve?

The Community Members. In trying to understand any community, its people are more important, of course, than the physical factors. This fact is of particular significance to teachers because of the rôle home influences play in the development of children. To make your early observations most informative, try to obtain information on such questions as these:

1. What are the chief occupations of the people whom the school serves? Do parents of school children work in the community or do they commute?
2. What is the average educational background of the people in the school community?
3. What is the income level and how stable is it?
4. Is this the type of community in which both parents work?
5. What types of homes are in the community? Are they largely single dwellings or multiple units; owner-occupied or rented?
6. What size are the families in the community?

Community Recreation Facilities. As teachers become more concerned with the balanced development of children rather than limiting their attention to a narrow emphasis upon the academic, they recognize the need of wholesome recreation. The recreational facilities of a community affect the education of its children, whether or not the school recognizes it.

You will need to know the recreational backgrounds of your children. What recreation halls, gymnasiums, parks, playgrounds, ponds, lakes or rivers are in the community? To what extent do the children use them? What sports are popular? Many of the children will attend the movies. How many theaters are in the community and what kinds of pictures are shown? Do your pupils go too often and stay up too late at night? In communities of some types you may have to combat the influence of pool halls, penny arcades, or bars. While you may not wish to emulate Carrie Nation, it is well to know what the situation is.

In many schools even young children are well traveled. Do the people of your community take their children on trips? Do the children get to places of interest nearby? Do their vacation trips take them farther afield? You will want to inventory the recreational experiences of the children as well as the facilities in the community.

The Size of the Community. No one can say with certainty how large a child's world may be. It is known that children's understandings of the world begin with home and immediate neighborhood. A small school community lends itself readily to the development of social understandings. The fostering of such social understandings is probably more diffi-

cult in larger communities, but the handicap may be counterbalanced by the broader experiences of some city children.

In observing the size of the school community, here are some factors to consider:

1. Does the school community have clearly defined borders?
2. Is the community served by more than one school?
3. Are any children transported? How far?
4. Of what types are the bordering communities?
5. What rivalries or jealousies are there between neighborhoods or schools?

Community Use of the School. The phrase "community school" no longer represents only an educational theory or ideal. The school's worth as a practical means of service to the community and the results of such service in increasing community interest and support have been demonstrated. What use does the community make of your school? The questions below indicate some of the more prevalent uses:

1. Do children's organizations use the building and its facilities after school hours?
2. Do parents' organizations use the school?
3. To what extent do individuals, community organizations, and the general public use the school?
4. What prohibitions are there on the use of the school building and grounds?
5. Are children in the school engaged in work socially useful to the community?

School Use of the Community. The school which uses only books has a barren, narrow program at best. The use of pictures, maps, and samples enriches learning greatly. But, if "a picture is worth a thousand words," then a direct personal experience should be worth a thousand pictures. All learning is based upon direct sensory experience. Vicarious learning is a modification and imaginative projection of earlier personal experience. Young children, especially those of elementary-school age, learn best through direct personal experience. Therefore the school should make full use of all educative community resources.

You will want to determine the extent to which your school uses its community:

1. Is educational use made of recreational facilities?
2. Does the school use the museum, court house, town hall, and similar public places?
3. Do school groups visit shops, factories, and farms?
4. Does the school make use of the human resources of the community through people visiting the school to talk and work with children?

Visiting the Homes of Parents. In most school communities it is highly desirable for teachers to visit the homes of their children. Such visits help

teachers and parents to know each other, to reach understandings concerning the program of the school, and to discuss matters of common interest. Home visits are especially useful to the student teacher in helping him acquire an understanding of the backgrounds of the children. There are few communities where home visits are contrary to established school policy.

Before making visits to homes, inquire what the policy of the school is. As you go through the community, making general observations, ask yourself what problems may be met in visiting. Will some parents not want a teacher or student teacher to visit them? As a student teacher, will you be uncomfortable in some homes? You will, of course, seek the advice of your critic teacher before making any home visits. Knowing the school community, he can advise you whether it is better to visit alone, in the company of a more experienced teacher, or not to visit homes at all. Before making a home visit, be sure you have clearly in mind your purposes and have made necessary preparations. You should not visit the home until you know you are welcome and an appropriate time has been agreed upon.

OBSERVING THE ROOM IN WHICH YOU TEACH

One of your first needs, as a student teacher, is to adjust smoothly into the ongoing educational activities of the school. To do that, you need to know what kind of program is being developed. Observation of the physical arrangements of the classroom is one way to learn much about the curriculum experiences in this school. The apparent use made of the room and its equipment offers valuable evidence of the character of the educational program.

The General Appearance of the Classroom. It is sometimes said that "appearances are deceiving." No doubt that is sometimes true, but it is not often true of classrooms in elementary schools. Since the classroom is really the school home of a group of children, its appearance is important. The following questions may help you to study the appearance of the room:

1. What first impression does the classroom give you? Is it light, airy, and attractive or dark, stiff, and forbidding?
2. What aesthetic touches are noticeable? Are there flowers, attractive bulletin boards, pictures?
3. How neat and well-arranged is the room?
4. Does the classroom appear to be chiefly a recitation room or a work room?

The Size and Type of Room. Modern education requires much more space than did the old, passive read-and-recite programs of past genera-

tions. Large, spacious rooms are needed for activity, group work, and displays. Available space per child, in consideration of the maturity of the child, is an important factor. Is the room spacious? Is freedom of movement encouraged? Is the room crowded and cramped?

You will wish to note the adequacy of lighting, the type and flexibility of seating, sound-proofing, and fixed room equipment. Observe the size, type, and location of chalkboards. Is there ample open floor space? Is the condition of the floor such that children can work on it?

The Location of the Room. The thoughtful teacher recognizes that the location of his room affects his work with children. He has studied the location of his room to be prepared for emergencies in case danger arises or accidents occur. As you observe your room, note the following locations:

1. Where is your classroom with reference to regular and emergency exits, first aid equipment, and fire alarm?
2. What is its location from lavatories?
3. How convenient is it to supply rooms, auditorium, and other special rooms?
4. How is it located in relationship to outdoor play areas, busy passageways, and the like?
5. What is its location in relation to sun and winds?

Evidences of the Quality of Living in the Classroom. You have learned that good teaching is a creative process that must be interpreted and modified in terms of classroom groups and individual children. As you gain experience, you will develop your own creative approach. In your first efforts, however, you will especially wish to harmonize your work with that of the regular teacher and his group of children.

There are many overt indications of the quality of living in a classroom. A few of the evidences which you may observe are suggested here:

1. What murals, diagrams, models, and maps are in view?
2. How are the bulletin boards used and what is their appearance?
3. What textbooks, workbooks, reference books, and other printed materials are in use?
4. What examples of children's work are displayed?
5. What living things are in the room?

OBSERVING THE MATERIALS AVAILABLE

The kinds and amounts of instructional materials affect the educational program in many ways. In some cases materials are available but are not used at all, or are not put to the most functional use. In some cases teachers do not realize the value of such materials in teaching. Frequently available materials are not used simply because busy teachers are not aware of

their presence. Occasionally teachers do not use materials and equipment, such as *finger paint* or a *projector*, because they do not feel expert in their use or operation. This lack of use is rarely due to administrative restrictions on the kind of teaching to be done or the curriculum to be followed in the school. Observations made early will help in finding material assets which will make your student teaching easier and more effective.

Classroom Equipment. The furniture and equipment may be a tremendous asset in modern methods of teaching or they may be obstacles for a creative teacher to overcome. Desks screwed to the floor in rows will not help in developing group activities but, if you are aware of such seating limitations, you can make plans accordingly. Screwed-down desks do not necessitate a rigid, formal program any more than movable furniture necessarily insures a modern, flexible program. Note the following factors, among others:

1. Do the type and arrangement of seats allow flexibility in use?
2. Are there tables for reading, study, and group work?
3. Does the classroom have work benches, easels, and similar equipment?
4. Are there special spaces, such as a reading or a science corner?
5. Is there suitable play equipment? For kindergarten and early-elementary groups are there large building blocks, wheeled toys, and a slide? For later-elementary groups are there educational games?

The Library. The days when the educational process was largely limited to a child, a bench, and a book have long since passed. It is now recognized that the best teaching utilizes a wide variety of reading materials at the several levels of reading ability which will be found in any classroom group. In observing the library materials available, you will be sure to notice these following items among others:

1. Is there a classroom library? Are the materials well selected?
2. Is an adequate number of suitable books on various reading levels provided?
3. What children's magazines and newspapers are available?
4. Is the classroom library attractive, neat, and functionally arranged?
5. What other library service is regularly available?

Teaching Aids. Everything used in the process of teaching is an "aid." Since the presence of chalkboards, chalk, and books is assumed, the phrase "teaching aids" here refers to the many additional materials used in providing sensory learning experiences. As you know from your professional courses, a wide variety of sensory materials is used in a good modern program of teaching. You need to know the extent of the collection available to you so that you may plan wisely and know what is available when a need arises. A brief list is given here to facilitate your observations:

1. Does the school have such teaching aids as the following: motion-picture projector (silent or sound), radio, recording machine (for help in improving speech), phonograph, slide projector, duplicating machine, illuminated drawing board (for cutting stencils), modeling clay, potters' wheel, kiln, handcraft tools, art materials, globes, maps, pictures, musical instruments?
2. Are the school's teaching aids readily available for use?
3. Are the teaching aids in good condition and properly kept?
4. What facilities are there for storage of materials, such as cabinets, individual lockers, picture files, and map rails?

Free and Low-cost Materials. An inventory of the supply of instructional materials will help you to determine what additional materials are needed and where to begin locating them. Early attention to the problem of materials for use in teaching will give you a good start in planning your teaching. You realize, of course, that no student teacher is expected to spend extensive amounts in the purchase of materials; such expenditures may be considered poor taste.

It is useful to know sources of free and inexpensive aids to teaching.

1. What low-cost or free materials are ready for your use?
2. What supply catalogs and lists of free materials are available for reference?
3. What additional sources of materials can you locate?

OBSERVING THE GROUP OF CHILDREN

There are many differences between groups of children. Each classroom group tends to develop attitudes and behavior which become characteristic of that group and make it different from every other group in certain ways. That is why one so often hears such expressions as "I have a slow group this year," "My group is unusually creative," "This is an easy group to manage," and "This is the most mature group I ever had." Your student teaching will be more effective if you can early come to know and understand your group.

Social Adjustment. As you first walk into the room, you may be conscious of just a sea of faces. Almost from the beginning, however, the group begins to take on personality. One purpose of these early observations is to see them as that group, because they act as a group. Important factors in group dynamics are social maturity and adjustment. The following list is offered to help you study the social adjustment of the group:

1. What attitudes do the children display toward each other?
2. What attitudes do the children have toward the teacher?
3. How mature are the children in their school environment, as shown by care of desks and equipment, and by respect for their own work?
4. What is the social structure of the group, as shown by its leadership (group cooperation or a few autocratic leaders); by the presence of

sub-groups, cliques, and isolates; and by the acceptance of minority group representatives?

5. How conscious is the group of social and economic differences among its members?

Physical Development. It is recognized that physical development influences social-emotional adjustment, efficiency of learning, health, and school attendance. Observations of the physical development of your group can give you important clues to economic and educational lacks and needs, and suggest types of learning activities which you may select for emphasis.

In observing the physical development of the group, such characteristics as these should be noted:

1. What is the level of general health and physical maturity in the group?
2. What proportion of the group shows evidences of malnutrition or low vitality?
3. How prevalent are physical defects such as deafness, poor vision, or skin infections?

Educational Adjustment. The development of ability to think and the acquisition of useful knowledge are primary aims of the school. Entirely too often it is taken for granted that these purposes are achieved when all children in a group have been pushed through the same number of pages in uniform books and over the same hurdles at testing time.

It is especially important that you observe the extent to which it is assumed that all children in the group can do the same work. You will need information on the following aspects of educational adjustment:

1. How many children seem to be advanced for the work of the group?
2. How large is the group for whom the work seems too difficult?
3. How suitable are class activities for the group as a whole?
4. What opportunities are made for work by small groups?
5. What evidences do you find of adjusting the work to the needs of individuals?

The Behavior of the Group. It is natural that you will be interested in how the children behave. Because of lack of experience, the question of children's behavior is a major source of worry to student teachers. Unfortunately, too many people think of "misbehavior," rather than of behavior which is simply another name for the way people act or conduct themselves. Postpone your concern about misbehavior until you have carefully observed the normal conduct of the group. Some positive procedures used by teachers are to understand the causes of the behavior of the group, to provide purposeful experiences of interest to the group, and to secure the understanding, cooperation, and respect of the children.

Valuable information about the causes of behavior can be secured by alert observation of a classroom group. In no other way can one so

quickly secure clues to the type of behavior to expect, the causes of each type of conduct, the general needs of the children, and the obviously maladjusted individuals. In observing behavior, your perception may be sharpened if you have certain questions in mind:

1. What is the level of behavior approved by the children as a group?
2. What level of behavior seems approved by the teacher?
3. What is the primary source of standards of conduct? Is it a child leader, a clique, the teacher and group, or the teacher?
4. What evidences are there of behavior that seems unacceptable to you?
5. What development in social poise have these children achieved?
6. What evidences of concern for the welfare of others do you find?

The Composition of Small Groups. The interaction of personalities, individual drives for leadership and recognition, the merging of interests in a common goal: all these constitute the social dynamic which develops group identity and group behavior. In many cases the development of small groups within larger groups answers the needs for leadership recognition, for close friendships among children, and offers a compromise between individual interests and interests of the total group. On the other hand, there are sometimes negative influences in the formation of small groups. Anti-social attitudes, prejudices, snobbishness, and gang-feelings may result in the formation of cliques.

In determining the nature and behavior of the small groups in your classroom, you will be helped by observing such characteristics as these:

1. What is the make-up of the small groups? Are they of one age-level, one socio-economic level, one color, one nationality, and so forth, or are they cross-sections of the classroom group?
2. What do you see as causes of the formation of the small groups?
3. What are the relationships between members within small groups?
4. What relationships exist between groups?

OBSERVING INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN

Despite the fact that children in a classroom display marked group characteristics, it is unsafe to make sweeping generalizations and judgments about individuals from observing the group. Group behavior is a common denominator of the conduct of the many individuals, but will not represent any individual child accurately. To plan and carry out a good program of teaching, one must know the children as individuals. Thorough understanding of individual children does not develop by accident.

Means of Knowing Individual Children. The experienced teacher has learned to know each child and to note when he needs attention. He often knows why the child needs attention, and the appropriate action to take.

Since you have had less opportunity to develop such insight, you will want to observe each child as an individual. You will need to know the rôle each child plays in the classroom group, the child's characteristics as a person outside the group, the differences between these ways of behaving and as many of the reasons as you can discover.

There are many means of securing information about children. At this point your personal observations should be supplemented with other available information. The list below is by no means complete. It is offered as some help so that you may start your study now.

1. How well are the various individuals in the group adjusted to the group?
2. What is shown by the school health and attendance record of each child?
3. What is the academic progress of each individual?
4. What is the family history of each child?
5. What does the test data reveal about each child?
6. What has the critic teacher contributed to your understanding of individuals in the group?

Selecting Children for First Observation. As you assume your duties as a student teacher, you may feel overwhelmed by the necessity of learning everything at once and doing several things at the same time. Actually experienced teachers learn many things and do many things at the same time. You, too, will develop such abilities. However, your feeling of security will be improved if you avoid attempting too many things at once. In learning to know the individual children, for example, you may select certain children to study first. You should use some guides, such as those suggested below, for selecting the individuals whom you first observe:

1. Are there unobtrusive, quiet children in the room with serious withdrawal tendencies?
2. Are there any children in the group who have serious physical handicaps?
3. Does the group contain any noticeably aggressive children?
4. Which individuals seem to be educationally maladjusted?

Times for Observing Individual Children. You will be busy with many things as you begin your student teaching. Learning to know the teacher, the other members of the staff, the children as a group, the school routine; planning your work; and locating materials could take all of your time and attention. Finding times during which to study individual children will be made easier if you think the problem through in terms of the opportunities available. You should observe them under varying circumstances. Some of the most appropriate times are suggested below:

1. Have you arranged to observe children at "free" periods, when they are not supervised, such as before school, during recesses, and after school?
2. Can you observe your children in supervised activities outside the classroom, such as in assembly, during physical education, and in the shop?

3. Have you set up a plan for observing individual children during regular classroom activities?

Techniques of Observing Individual Children. A modern teacher develops suitable means for observing his children under varying circumstances. He knows every child so well that he continually makes adjustments in the teaching process in terms of the interests and needs of individual children. Your background of professional study and your previous observations of children have helped you develop useful resources. To be certain that you are using effective techniques, you may wish to analyze your procedures. The following questions will be of help in your self-analysis:

1. Have you developed an indirect technique for observing an individual child while distributing materials, helping children with their wraps, reading a story, or studying school records?
2. Have you acquired a tactful direct technique so that you can question a child without arousing antagonism, fear, or self-conscious behavior?
3. Have you learned to make mental notes of individual's reactions, as you work with individuals or groups?
4. Are you keeping foremost in your thinking, as you observe the child, pertinent information which you have gathered, such as age, race, occupation of parent, academic achievement, scores on standardized tests, number of different schools attended, health data, anecdotal records by previous teachers, and so on?

Recording the Results of Observation. It is obvious that you cannot remember all the specific details concerning each individual. It is necessary to record your information in some systematic way so that it will be readily available for reference. The very process of recording your data and general impressions will help you to develop a more accurate total picture of each child.

You are beginning a satisfactory system of records if you can answer the following questions in the affirmative:

1. Are you making a simple case history of each child, beginning with the handicapped, the maladjusted, and the gifted?
2. Are you regularly checking your case history records to be sure that no important data are omitted?
3. Are you keeping anecdotal records showing each child's special abilities, problems, and progress?
4. Are you organizing and arranging your records in a logical and convenient manner?
5. Are you checking the records with your critic teacher, to secure the benefit of his knowledge of the children and of his experienced judgment?

Using the Results of Observation. Your observations and records are of no more use than Silas Marner's gold unless you use them to improve

your teaching. Several ideas are suggested below to help you decide how well you are using the results of your observations:

1. Are you continually modifying your judgments of children in the group?
2. Are you modifying your plans for participation and teaching to provide for the special needs of each child as you know him better?
3. Are you changing your definition of satisfactory work for each child as you learn more about him as an individual?
4. Are you planning suitable and interesting challenges to stimulate each child to do his best?

OBSERVING THE TEACHING OF OTHERS

During your professional preparation you have already learned much about teaching by watching experienced teachers at work. You have learned a great deal from thoughtful study of professional books and from your professional courses. You may find, as you begin your student teaching, that the re-reading of favorite reference books and class notes will help to prepare you for your observation of teaching. With these backgrounds, and in terms of your immediate purposes, you will find further observation of the work of other teachers especially helpful.

What to Look For in Observing Others Teach. As you observe your critic teacher and the other teachers in the building, you will naturally direct your attention to those personal qualities and teaching activities in which you feel least secure. To get a comprehensive view of the teaching of others, for comparison with your own behavior, pay particular attention to the following:

1. The classroom manner of the teacher: voice, gestures, facial expressions, movement about the classroom.
2. The characteristic oral expression: variety or repetition of attention-getting phrases; tone of comments, implying approval or disapproval; timing of appropriate comments.
3. The planning with children: purposes of plans, types of plans, how developed, and so on.
4. The methods used in working with children, such as questions, discussion, demonstration, and group work.
5. The procedures in appraisal: evaluation periods, records of work, informal tests, standardized tests.
6. The teacher's rôle outside the classroom, such as in the auditorium, on the playground, and in the lunchroom.
7. The provisions made for individual differences among children.
8. The uses of a variety of learning materials.
9. Evidences of working toward clearly defined goals.

Applying the Results of Your Observations of Teaching. Your first use of what you learned by observing others teach should be in beginning your own student teaching in a manner similar to that to which children

are accustomed. Children should not be subjected to sudden or extreme changes in treatment. The critic teacher may expect you to follow his practices fairly closely. You will wish to emulate sound, successful practices as you have observed them. You will gradually make desirable modifications in your own teaching procedures, emphasizing your strengths and abilities as you identify them. Naturally, in your planning with the critic teacher, you will discuss those practices in which you wish to propose significant changes and with which you need his guidance.

OBSERVING THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

An understanding of the administrative organization is necessary in order to be clear about the school curriculum, policies of classroom management, instructional practices, the public relations program of the school. No teacher can act as a law unto himself. The program of individual rooms must coordinate with and depend upon the total program of the school as well as of the school system of which it is a part.

The Kinds of Administrative Organization. In terms of policy-making there are three major types of organization. In the line-and-staff type, all policy is passed down from higher levels of authority to the teachers. In a laissez-faire type of organization, every one is left alone to do as he pleases or as he thinks best; thus each teacher independently makes his own policy. In a democratic organization, policy is made by majority agreement after consultation with those concerned or affected by the policy being considered. Each individual then follows the policies agreed upon.

The administrative organization may encourage, on the one hand, autocratic order-giving or, on the other, cooperative supervision on the part of the principal. In some elementary schools the principal also teaches and these teaching duties absorb so much of his time and energy that he has little time to organize or administer his school. The administrative organization then reverts to a laissez faire status unless the staff cooperates closely.

You will find that very few schools are completely consistent in administrative organization or policy. The human element looms so large in school organization and management that compromises are inevitable. However, for the benefit of your own successful adjustment, you need to secure as clear an idea as you can of the organization and policies of the school.

Personal visits to the school office and conferences with the principal are the most direct means of getting a complete picture of the school's administrative policy. The observed activities of the principal, supervisors, and teachers are an excellent means of learning how policy functions. The

attitudes and behavior of children, the opinions voiced by teachers, and the conduct of faculty meetings will all help to broaden your understanding of the administrative organization.

Professional Relationships with the School Administrators. As you begin your student teaching, you will wish to observe professional ethics in your relations with the administrators of the school as well as with all others with whom you have professional contacts. The principal is responsible for the operation of his school. Therefore, you will need to determine those educational aims which the school is endeavoring to achieve. You will find that you hold many purposes and ideals in common. The principal will expect you to have ideas of your own and contributions to make from your professional education.

The student teacher most appreciated is one who coöperates with the administrators and the staff in their efforts to enrich the living of children. He is loyally alert to improve public understanding and support of the school through good teaching and by explanation and interpretation of school practice when opportunities arise.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

No one, other than the student teacher himself, can fully know what he observes, how broad and clear the observation has been, or how useful it is to him. Therefore, it is desirable that you carefully analyze your observations to be sure that you have made the most of them. The outline below is suggested as a means of stimulating your thinking and sharpening your analysis of observations made.

1. *The Purposes of Your Observations:*

What information and insight did you hope to gain from your observations? Did you clearly formulate your purposes before observing? In what ways did you modify your aims as observations were made? How were your purposes related to your own problems in teaching and to the larger purposes of children's educational experiences? How do you propose to apply the insights gained from observation to your development of balanced and complete educational aims?

2. *Your Plans for Systematic Observations:*

What tentative plans did you work out, in advance, for effective ways to observe? In what ways did your plans include tactical provisions for the personalities involved in your observation? How did you provide for flexibility in observations, while retaining clear organization of systematic plans? In what ways are you improving your plans for future observations?

3. *The Effectiveness of Your Observations:*

How did you insure a comprehensive, thorough observation of the school and its program? What is your present understanding of the school in its community setting, the pupils and their needs, the staff relationships, and the

educational program of the school? Are these understandings clear? What is expected of a student teacher in the school?

4. *The Records of Your Observations:*

What records are you making and how are you keeping them? How are you safeguarding confidential information? What records are you making of sources of useful instructional materials? What data are you recording with reference to individual children? What uses are you now making of your records? What additional records are you planning to make? What improvements do you see as desirable in making and keeping your records?

5. *The Results of Your Observations:*

How are you using the results of your observations in planning your further participation? In what ways are you modifying your personality, appearance, and manner on the basis of your observations? How are you utilizing your observations as a basis for conduct in professional contacts with pupils, teachers, and administrators? In what ways do you see that your observations should continue?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. How well can one get to know what children are really like through observing them in the classroom?

2. How can you use casual comments heard about children to fill in a picture of their personalities?

3. "I have written a great deal of information about the children, but I don't seem to know much about them, nor am I using the records very often," complained one student teacher. What might be this student teacher's problems in selecting and organizing data about his children?

4. What do the school records tell about individual children and about the educational emphasis of the school curriculum? What cautions might properly be observed to guard against over-generalizing about a child from school records?

5. Sketch, roughly, the arrangement of the classroom in which you are teaching. Is this an effective arrangement for what you hope to do with children? What does the functional arrangement of a classroom mean?

6. What factors, other than specific dimensions or specific equipment, determine the educational adequacy of classroom or playground space?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

College of Education, The Ohio State University, *The Ohio Teaching Record* (Columbus, The Ohio State University Press, 1941).

This is a manual, in outline form, for use in observing teaching. You will find it helpful for the lists of specific suggestions.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Newer Instructional Practices of Promise, Twelfth Yearbook* (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1939).

This is one of the most widely read yearbooks of this division of the National Education Association. The volume will be found helpful in observing the instructional program, teaching practices, and materials used. You should note particularly Chapter IV on the environment.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Mental Health in the Classroom, Thirteenth Yearbook* (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1940).

You will find Chapter XV, "We Visit a Modern School," a stimulating description of the differences between two schools. Contrasts in attitudes, emotional tone, and human relationships are thoughtfully presented.

ENGLISH, Horace, and RALMEY, Victor, *Studying the Individual Child* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1941).

This brief manual for directed child study may be found helpful in suggesting particular techniques for studying individual children. Chapter I, "Why Make a Case Study," Chapter II, "General Directions," and Chapter IV, "Methods of Getting Data" contain practical suggestions for you.

Illinois Association of School Boards, *Characteristics of a Good School*, School Board Reference Library, Pamphlet No. 7 (Evanston, Illinois Association of School Boards, 1947).

This fifty-one page bulletin contains much of the specific information you need in preparation for thorough observation. The criteria it includes for the evaluation of the school, its facilities, staff, and program will be helpful in balancing your emphasis upon various aspects of the school.

MAYFARTH, Frances (Compiler), *Better School Homes for Children* (Washington, D.C., Association for Childhood Education, 1946).

This reprint service bulletin includes fine articles on elementary school buildings and grounds.

National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency, *Report on School and Teacher Responsibilities* (Washington, D. C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947).

Your study of this compact pamphlet will be useful in pointing out significant but frequently neglected phases of the school program which should be observed.

New Jersey State Department of Education, *Self-Evaluation in the Elementary School*, Elementary School Bulletin No. 11 (Trenton, State Department of Education, 1946).

A joint project of the Elementary Classroom Teacher's Association and the Elementary School Principal's Association of the State of New Jersey, this pamphlet is a useful guide to the observation and study of all aspects of the elementary school.

OLSEN, Edward G., *School and Community* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946).

This book may be found useful with particular reference to observing the community and the school-community relationships which exist in your school. You should find Chapter 3, "Technique of Community Analysis," and Chapter 18, "Community Service Center," directly helpful in studying the community your school serves.

CHAPTER III

Contributing Through Participation

During your first days of student teaching you will begin participating in the life of the classroom and the school. You will have an opportunity to be helpful and to accept some responsibility. This beginning participation may be helping children with wraps, supervising the playground, helping a committee of children arrange an effective bulletin board, accompanying a sick child to the nurse's room, playing quiet music at rest time, reading to the children from an attractive book which you own, assisting a child with arithmetic, correcting written work for the teacher, or mixing paint before school starts in the morning. How much you contribute will depend largely upon your sensitivity to the whole situation, an eagerness to be genuinely helpful, and the knowledge of sound modern education that you bring to the student-teaching job.

A modern elementary school has two main purposes. First, the school attempts to develop strong, self-reliant, well-adjusted individuals. Second, the school accepts responsibility for helping children understand the world in which they live and for developing the skills and attitudes by which life can become richer for everyone. Teachers in democratic schools see these two purposes as complementary, not mutually exclusive. The properly educated individual does know how to live well with his fellow men. In fact, the child becomes a strong individual only through learning to do his best thinking and by becoming more and more concerned about the effect of his actions upon the welfare of others. This chapter is directed toward that which is good for the individual child, on the assumption that what is good for the child is good for the democratic society in which he lives. If you as a student teacher are to participate wisely in the guidance of children, you will understand the needs that must be met and satisfied in order that each child may realize his optimum growth.

YOUR UNDERSTANDING OF CHILDREN'S NEEDS

Needs can be organized under three headings: physiological, emotional-social, and intellectual. These needs are closely interrelated and support each other. Stunted physical growth will effect intellectual growth. The child who suffers from malnutrition has difficulty making adequate intel-

lectual progress. Emotional and social maladjustment frequently causes serious physiological difficulty. The child who is rejected—not wanted at home and having no friends at school—becomes to some extent physically ill. As you begin your participation, understanding of these basic needs and their implications for a good school program is a “must” for you.

Physiological Needs. Included in physiological needs are proper foods and liquids, sufficient oxygen, proper temperature, freedom from infection, proper elimination, normal sex activities, and exercise and rest. Obviously, the school cannot by itself provide all of the conditions so that these needs for physical health are completely satisfied for all of the children. Increasing knowledge on the part of school workers of what is needed for physical well being, however, is causing important changes in the programs of schools for young children. The school has accepted a large share of responsibility for the health of the school child. Health has long been spoken of as the primary objective of sound education but only in recent years have teachers and administrators acted as though they believed their own words. Modern teachers, professionally trained, understand the physiological needs of children and provide school experiences that contribute to their satisfaction.

What are some of the changes in school practice that have come about through increased knowledge of the physiological needs of young children on the part of the teacher? Mid-morning lunches are served; rest periods are scheduled daily; frequent exercise is provided; taboos are removed from toilet activities; healthy curiosity about sex is recognized and appropriate questions answered; and boys and girls enjoy normal relationships in the classroom and on the playground. Well balanced hot lunches are provided; long periods of enforced inactivity are avoided; and infected or exposed children stay at home to protect the group.

The modern teacher not only strives to provide directly for the health of his group but he also recognizes that individuals vary in the degree to which their physiological needs are being satisfied. John has been undernourished over a long period of time and needs more rest and supplementary food. Mary has a defective heart which eliminates violent exercise for her. Jane is overweight; she needs insight into its causes; she especially needs encouragement to stay with a proper diet. Since Joe's eyes are weak, he must sit in a well-lighted location near bulletin boards and the chalkboard, and his reading must be for short periods only.

While doing all that he can to provide healthful experiences for the children at school, the teacher will know that he cannot do the whole job by himself. He will attempt to coordinate his activities with those of the school nurse, the physician, the home, and the community agencies offering services for children. He will recognize that his contribution to meeting the physiological needs of children begins with knowledge of

making exact computations, and using instruments of measurement. He grows in ability to use effective methods of work in solving his problems, including careful planning, getting information from appropriate sources, and acting on his best thinking.

The real environment of the young child, until eight or nine years of age, is almost completely the "here and now." He tries to understand his immediate environment, that which he can see and feel and contact directly. His questions are specific rather than general. He has a natural curiosity that brings out many useful and valuable questions. His early experiences in getting satisfactory answers to his questions will contribute to his development of intellectual power. At approximately nine or ten years of age he is ready to "go out of" his immediate environment to make a beginning in understanding vicariously how people lived in earlier times and live now in other places in the world. At about this age, also, he is becoming increasingly capable of dealing insightfully with some abstractions. The individual whose intellectual needs are being satisfied never becomes content with what he understands but has a continuing desire to know more about the environment in which he lives.

Some teachers in the past have stressed academic subject-matter achievement rather than the development of intellectual power. Basic needs have been consistently ignored in the drive to teach children the fundamental academic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic. An illustration of this practice is the beginning reading program which existed in many schools and in fact is still to be found. The primary purpose of the first-grade teacher was to teach each child to read from books. As much as half of the school day was devoted to direct instruction in reading for all first grades. It is now known, of course, that many six-year-olds are not ready, physically, emotionally, or intellectually, to learn to read. Modern teachers who understand child development know that premature forcing of skills instruction does real harm to the child and retards or blocks, rather than promotes, total growth.

Your Understanding of the School Program for Meeting Children's Needs. If you are to participate intelligently in the school program, you must understand the purposes of the school and of the critic teacher with whom you are working. You will want to study the activities of the children and their teacher as you search for answers to questions such as these:

1. *Is this school program meeting the physiological needs of children?* Is a rhythm of work, rest, and play provided? Is attention given to individual differences in physical maturity and well being? Do children ask questions about their bodies and are these questions answered satisfactorily?
2. *Is this school program meeting social-emotional needs?* Do these children seem to be happy? Do they like and respect each other? Are the children making decisions about the things that concern them or merely following orders? Are there any children who are not accepted by the group? Is each

child getting satisfaction through recognition of his achievements by the group?

3. *Is this school program providing a stimulating intellectual atmosphere?* Are individual differences in the ability to develop intellectual power recognized? Are all of the children held to a single standard of academic achievement? Are these children growing in understanding their own community? Is information drawn almost entirely from books? Are these children learning to communicate effectively?

The answers to these and other similar questions will give you some appreciation of the quality of living and learning that is going on in your classroom. As you plan for your participation, you will keep foremost in your thinking the basic needs of children. You will repeatedly ask yourself, "Will this contribute to what these children need? What does this child need most?"

TYPES OF SCHOOL PROGRAMS FOR MEETING CHILDREN'S NEEDS

Many types of programs are in use in the elementary schools of the United States, varying from the most conservative to the modern. Schools fall into three general classifications with reference to the organization of the curriculum: subject-centered, correlated, and integrated. Any one school rather than being completely subject-centered, or correlated, or integrated will tend to incorporate some of the characteristics of all three. Most of our schools can be most accurately described as subject-centered but rarely does one find a school which has not been modified in some way to provide an element of correlation or integration. The student teacher will find that the conservative subject-centered curriculum presents a real challenge to the teacher who is concerned with meeting children's needs. To a somewhat lesser degree the same can be said for the correlated program. The integrated curriculum, however, makes possible a school program in which the needs of children get first consideration. In the following pages the three types of curriculums are described to help you understand the school in which you are working so that you will know better how to guide the children. No matter how rigid the school curriculum, the sensitive student teacher can make modifications and adjustments which will enrich the school lives of the children with whom he is working.

The Subject-centered Curriculum. Proponents of the subject-centered curriculum view education for young children as a procedure for mastering specific skills and learning factual information that has been determined in advance. It is assumed that curriculum experts know the specific experiences that any group of children need to become educated adults. Planning the curriculum then becomes a matter of determining for each grade level the specific spelling words to be learned, the difficulty of the

books to be read, the historical and geographical facts to be learned, the arithmetic processes to be mastered, and so on for the entire elementary-school program. The various subjects and skills in this type of curriculum are taught as separate and unrelated experiences. If the skills and facts are to become organized into a related whole, they must be tied together within the personality of the child. The child can memorize isolated facts even if they are without real meaning for him and actually does effect some sort of integration of the mass of material to which he is exposed.

The school day in the subject-centered program is rigidly divided into short periods of time. A definite number of minutes is allocated to each subject and skill, and the schedule is customarily adhered to strictly. Each subject may be taught by the same teacher, or a given class of children may work with as many as six teachers who are specialists in the various subjects. The following is a typical daily schedule for a fourth-grade group:

9:00— 9:10	Opening exercises
9:10—10:10	Reading
10:10—10:30	Recess
10:30—11:00	Arithmetic
11:00—11:10	Handwriting
11:10—11:00	Science, Health (alternate days)
	Noon
1:00— 1:30	Spelling
1:30— 2:00	Geography
2:00— 2:30	Music—2 days each week
	Physical education—a days each week
	Art—1 day each week
2:30— 2:40	Recess
2:40— 3:10	History
3:10— 3:40	Grammar, Composition (alternate days)

All of the children in a given grade are expected to do the same work: to learn the same spelling words, to read the same book, to do the same arithmetic problems. Teaching is largely a routine of hearing recitations with emphasis upon drill in the skills and memorization of subject matter. Grade standards of achievement are definitely established and the assumption is that if the child cannot measure up to these standards he belongs in a lower grade. The teacher reports to parents by assigning a letter or numerical mark that theoretically evaluates the child's work in relation to the standards of the grade.

The primary source of information in the subject-centered school is books and thus learning tends to be almost entirely vicarious rather than direct. Children are permitted little physical activity since it is assumed that learning comes for the most part from reading and listening. Aesthetic experiences tend to be imitative rather than creative and the total time

devoted to music, art, drama, writing, literature, and rhythmic is limited to a few short periods each week.

The Correlated Curriculum. The correlated curriculum is a compromise between the subject-centered curriculum and the integrated curriculum. Supporters of the correlated approach recognize the rigidity of the subject-centered curriculum and are concerned that, in the latter, learning in the various subjects and skills is unrelated and isolated. In the correlated curriculum, to meet this objection, the subjects and skills are organized about broad fields, combining those subjects and skills which seem closely related in a natural way. Usually four fields are recognized: language arts, social studies, mathematics and science, and aesthetics. Within the language arts are reading, oral expression, and written expression which includes spelling, handwriting, grammar, and usage. The social studies combine history, geography, and citizenship. Mathematics and science relates arithmetic, science, nature study, and health. The aesthetics includes music, fine and industrial arts, dramatics, literature, and physical education.

Each broad field is considered a related whole. For example, in the broad field of the social studies the history, geography, and civics (citizenship) of a given region are studied at the same time and in relation to each other. In contrast to this, in the subject-centered program, the children will frequently be studying the geography of one region and the history of another at the same time. A typical sixth-grade group will be studying the history of the United States and the geography of Asia.

A large block of uninterrupted time is devoted to each of the broad fields and the use of this time may be quite flexible. The following is a typical daily schedule for a fourth-grade group in the correlated program:

9:00—9:10	Opening exercises
9:10—10:20	Language Arts
	Reading
	Oral expression
	Written expression
	Spelling
	Handwriting
	Grammar and usage
10:10—10:30	Recess
10:30—11:45	Social Studies
	History
	Geography
	Citizenship
	Noon
11:45— 2:00	Mathematics and science
	Arithmetic
	Science
	Nature study
	Health

1:00— 2:10	Recess
2:10— 3:15	Aesthetics
	Music
	Fine Arts
	Industrial Arts
	Dramatics
	Literature
	Physical education

Often a combination of the subject-centered and correlated program is used with one half of the day devoted to the two broad fields of the language arts and the social studies and the other half day broken up into shorter periods for arithmetic, science, music, art, health, and physical education.

To provide a large block of time for a broad field makes possible a meaningful related experience for the child. The teacher who is concerned about children's needs will find it considerably easier to help children in the correlated program than in the subject-centered program with its inflexible time allotments. However, it should be recognized that the correlated program has essentially the same purposes in relation to the learning of subject matter and the development of skills as the subject-centered curriculum. In the correlated curriculum teachers still often divide up the large block of time into rather fixed periods for the various skills and subjects within each broad field. When this is done they have, for all intents and purposes, a subject-centered program.

Evaluation in the correlated program tends to be much the same as in the subject-centered program, although there is marked variation from one school to another. While the selection of content is more flexible than in the subject-centered program, standards of achievement in skills are maintained in terms of grade levels. Instead of evaluation of individual progress based upon short recitation alone, consideration is given to the quality of the child's contribution to the group work. On the report card for parents, some schools use only the labels for broad fields, such as language arts, social studies, and so on, and assign a mark indicating general achievement in the broad field. Other schools indicate the broad fields on the report cards but assign marks on the separate subjects and skills within each broad field.

The Integrated Program. In the integrated program a part of the school day is organized about a broad unit of work. The broad unit consists of a series of closely related experiences through which children attack a large common problem which they recognize as significant or gain further knowledge and understanding of an important broad area of experience. An example of the common-problem unit is the work of a third-grade group of children who were faced with the problem of fre-

quent wet feet in the winter season because their imitation leather shoes did not last very long. These children learned about the various types of materials that are used for shoes, the comparative costs, and how to repair their own footwear. An example of the area-of-experience unit is the work of a group of children who studied "How We Use Leather." These children studied how leather is used in their community, the various animals from which leather comes, the processing of leather, and so on. Sometimes the broad unit is a combination of the common problem and the area of experience. An example of this would be provided if the children above who started with the problem of wet feet had expanded their work to include a broad study of the uses of leather.

Within the broad unit of work skills and subject-matter are used as tools and materials necessary to carry on the work involved in the study. The child reads to get information, understanding, and insight that is needed for some phase of the broad unit; he gains power and skill in reading through this process. Mathematical skills and knowledge are employed when they are needed to contribute to the study. Historical research is done when it is needed to carry on the study. The painting which children do in connection with the broad unit helps them to express, clarify, and share ideas vital to the study. In this way the child brings his knowledge and skill to bear on problems that are real to him. He gains more knowledge and skill as he needs them and in so doing he achieves integration which gives him increased power to face other problems.

In the integrated program only a part of the school day is given over to the broad-unit work. It is recognized that some of the best learning of the skills goes on in the unit work. However, a block of time is also provided for direct emphasis upon improving specific skills in reading, spelling, handwriting, arithmetic, and oral expression. The need for more skill which shows up in the broad-unit work furnishes drive and purpose to these experiences directed towards improving the skills. You are aware too that these common skills are used by the child in his out-of-school life and from this source comes added incentive.

Teachers who work with the integrated program know that skills have value only as they help children live more richly and effectively. They know too that a skill is improved most successfully when there is a close connection between practice on the skill and its use in a real situation. A child does not first learn a skill and then use it. Nor is improving a skill a natural objective for a young child. Obviously, not all of the children always need help with the same skill. Provision is made for these individual differences. During a skill period a small group may be working on reading; several children might be practicing handwriting; one child may be practicing spelling; and a group might be working with arithmetic. There are times in the skill work when the entire group will be working

with the same problem. For instance, the whole group might be learning to spell a group of words which have been frequently misspelled in their written work, or the entire group might be trying to understand some arithmetic computations which they need to use.

Another part of the school day is devoted to the arts. During this time the children have experiences with music, rhythms, fine arts, industrial arts, literature, creative writing, dramatics and other forms of creative oral expression. These art experiences may be related to the unit of work or they may have no connection at all. In a given period of time the children could be working on a series of murals that have been stimulated by the unit study. The same group, however, might be studying and singing the songs of Stephen Foster in their music. This music might have no direct relationship to the unit going forward.

Still another part of the day is devoted to science and physical education. Any broad unit of work should be rich in science. However, teachers in the integrated program know that science experiences for young children should not be confined to those involved in the broad unit.

The following is a daily schedule used by one fourth-grade group in the integrated program:

9:00—10:30	Planning and broad-unit work
10:30—10:50	Rest, relaxation, light food
10:50—11:00	Work on skills
	Noon
1:00— 2:15	The Arts
	Music
	Fine and industrial arts
	Rhythms
	Creative writing
	Dramatics
	Literature
2:15— 2:30	Rest and relaxation
2:30— 3:30	Science and physical education
3:30— 3:45	Evaluation

The schedule for the arts is not meant to convey that each of these arts receives part of the time every day. On the contrary, the entire period for the arts might be devoted to painting. On another day half of the time might be used for music and the rest for literature. Some schools use art specialists whose time must be scheduled for the whole school. This means that some of the art activities must be determined in advance so that the time of the specialist can be well used.

The above daily time schedule is kept flexible and is changed about when there is a good reason for doing so. For example, a field trip which is part of the broad-unit work might well take a full half day. Likewise planning and preparing for a program to which parents are to be invited

might necessitate radical changes in the time schedule for a period of several days.

Evaluation in the *integrated program* is generally in terms of broader objectives and is more inclusive than is the case in the subject-centered or correlated program. Physical and social-emotional needs are considered as well as intellectual needs in evaluating the growth of the child rather than evaluating academic achievement alone. Reports to parents include all aspects of the child's development. In order to achieve this, some schools have abandoned *formal report cards*, substituting informal letters and parent-teacher conferences. In the integrated program, children usually go through the various grades of the school with the same group of children. Seldom are children "left back." When a child is regrouped (retained or doubled-promoted), it is on the basis of general maturity. It follows that there must be flexibility rather than rigid grade placement of subject matter and achievement in skills.

PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL DAY

A previous section in this chapter presented a discussion of the needs of children of elementary-school age. This presentation was followed by a description of the general types of school programs in use in the United States. As a student teacher beginning your participation, you will need to study the school program in which you find yourself. The student teacher to some extent makes a difference in the daily school life of the children with whom he is working. Regardless of the type of school in which you are teaching, you can make worth-while modifications and contributions which provide for richer living in the classroom. This contribution can begin with your earliest work with children. To participate wisely you must understand the basic needs of children and the particular needs of the group with whom you are working. In the following section, a discussion of important aspects of the daily program is offered to help you further understand your school situation so that you can plan intelligently for participation.

Major Provisions for the Daily Program. As you observe and participate in the daily work of the classroom, continue to ask yourself these questions:

1. Is adequate time provided for planning by the teacher and the children?
2. Is adequate time provided for integrating experiences?
3. Is adequate time provided for improvement of skills?
4. Is adequate time provided for art experiences?
5. Is provision made for a rhythm of work, rest, and play?
6. Is adequate time provided for coöperative activities involving the whole school?
7. Is adequate time provided for evaluating?

Your answers to these questions will help you identify the areas in which you can contribute most effectively to the quality of school living in your classroom, not only in your beginning participation but throughout your entire student-teaching experience.

Providing for Planning. If a child is to become increasingly self-directive and share in decision making, he must experience daily, intelligent planning for the use of his time. He must learn to contribute to group planning and to accept responsibility for acting on group decisions. He must learn also to plan well for his individual activities.

Modern teachers provide time for planning. Usually at, or near, the beginning of the morning session the entire group devotes some time to planning the work of the day. The teacher, of course, plays an important rôle in guiding this planning but the children are having a real part and are making some decisions of consequence, in terms of their maturity and the extent to which they are concerned. In addition to the general planning time for the day, brief planning periods are often necessary at the beginning of particular activities. If the planning is successful, the child not only feels the security that comes from the mature guidance of the teacher but he knows also that he has had a real part in projecting the work of the day. He has participated in decisions in connection with problems which concern him. The kinds of decisions he can be "in on" depends upon his maturity and background of experience.

As a student teacher in your beginning participation, you may help in planning in one or more of the following ways:

1. Volunteer to help a small committee of children find needed books at the library, obtain prices on food for a party, obtain permission of the local grocer for the entire group to visit his store, get clay from the ground in the vicinity of the school, rearrange the bulletin board, clean the aquarium, prepare a report to the entire group, and so on.
2. Plan with a small group of children, who have been getting into trouble on the playground, how they can use their free play time in an interesting game.
3. Help a child plan his attack on an individual research problem.
4. Plan with a child for more effective practice with spelling, or some other skill.
5. Suggest to the teacher that you might help by recording individual and group plans on the chalkboard or in a notebook.
6. Offer to assist children in planning a mural, a dramatization, construction work, and so on.
7. Help children follow through with some aspect of the work which they have planned.

Providing for Integrating Experiences. Children are helped to integrate their experiences most effectively in the elementary school through work on common problems and the study of an important area of experience.

In the integrated program this work is organized about the broad unit. However, it must be remembered that, regardless of the school program, the child is continually struggling to bring about an integration within himself. If skills and subjects are taught in an isolated manner, the child has difficulty in making sense of it all, in seeing relationships, in reorganizing the skills and subject matter meaningfully so that they will be of use to him. Modern teachers provide time for broad-unit experiences. If you are doing your student teaching in a subject-centered or correlated program, you must recognize the limitations in these programs and try to make modifications by which children are helped in this process of integration.

In your beginning participation you will have opportunity to help in providing for integrating experiences. If the children in your classroom are working with a broad unit, you might help in one or more of the following ways:

1. Volunteer to accept responsibility for guiding a committee doing research on some phase of the study.
2. Help with a field trip by taking an exploratory trip yourself, making arrangement for the visit of the entire group of children, and assisting with plans for the trip.
3. Contribute materials to enrich the study: pictures, books, magazines, models, movies, maps, samples, and so on.
4. Prepare experience reading charts of questions children ask, of stories of some phase of the study, of new spelling words needed in the study, of a record of a trip, and so on.
5. Work with a small group of children who are painting scenery, practicing a play, writing a letter, building library furniture, and so on.
6. Assist the teacher in providing that materials and tools are available for the work of the day.
7. Help an individual child get needed information from a book that is difficult for him to read.
8. Supervise the children in cleaning up, rearranging furniture, and putting away materials at the end of the work period.
9. Help to sensitize the children to the relationships between the work of the day and the purposes of the broad unit by suggestions, questions, and comments.

If the subjects and skills are taught in a relatively isolated manner, and no broad unit is going forward, you might help provide for integration by:

1. Suggesting to the teacher that you supplement the reading books with experience reading charts dictated by the children.
2. Supplementing textbooks with related materials: other books, pictures, models, movies, magazines, globes, maps, samples, and so on.
3. Helping a small group of slow-learning children read and understand the textbooks of the grade.
4. Helping a child with his arithmetic by using mathematical problems which are real to him, such as the budgeting of his allowance.

5. Using the immediate community in any way possible to make vicarious book-learning more meaningful.

Providing for Improvement of Skills. Few teachers are guilty of not trying to do a good job with developing skills. In your participation you will undoubtedly have opportunities from the very beginning to work with children in improvement of their skills. You should prepare for this participation by studying each child with reference to the discussion of basic needs offered at the beginning of this chapter. You should remember that skills are tools for living and have value only as they help children live more richly. It is immeasurably more important that children be emotionally well adjusted and physically and mentally healthy than that they learn to read, write, and spell at any given age level. Three general principles should enter into your thinking and planning: skills must be sensibly practiced; drive for improvement comes from need which is identified in other school and out-of-school activities; individual children will vary as to the amount of time and emphases on skill instruction that will prove beneficial.

In your beginning participation you might help in the improvement of skills in one or more of the following ways:

1. Take full responsibility for working with one reading group of mature children who are ready for reading materials beyond the level of the grade.
2. Work daily with a group of slower readers who are not succeeding with the conventional books of the grade. These children might be helped if you secure reading material for them which is relatively easy as well as interesting.
3. Give individual help to a child who is having difficulty with handwriting.
4. Arrange to get help from a specialist for a child who has a serious speech defect.
5. Assist the teacher in giving, grading, and analyzing diagnostic and achievement tests in the skills.
6. Help a committee of children who have an important letter to write. With primary children the letter probably should be dictated to you, after which the children make a copy.
7. Help the teacher and the children by "correcting" written work in spelling, arithmetic, or written expression.
8. Work as a consultant during the skill time, helping any children who seem to need assistance.

Providing for Art Experiences. Children's work with music, painting, weaving, sculpture, poetry, rhythms, and dramatics have often been thought of in the past as "*fads and frills*" of education. Modern teachers now recognize that the arts are indispensable in human experience if the individual is to approach realization of his growth potential. Artistic expression plays a tremendously important rôle in meeting the needs of the

young child. As a student teacher you should not be embarrassed at your own lack of skill in any of these art forms. Skill is not for you a primary prerequisite. It is far more important that you have a sympathetic attitude towards the creative efforts of the child and that you recognize that the experience—not the finished product—is of primary importance.

As a student teacher in your beginning participation you might help in the arts program by:

1. Assisting in getting materials ready by: mixing paint, preparing clay, arranging tools, having adequate paper available, and so on.
2. Helping increase enthusiasm and interest of children by "joining in" appropriately and sensibly in the art experience: singing with the group, working with clay, doing some weaving.
3. Sharing with the children your copies of children's books—those which use beautiful language and are artistically illustrated.
4. Helping a committee of children plan and paint a mural.
5. Providing music, by playing the piano or by playing recordings for rhythms.
6. Providing materials for dramatic play or guiding children in interpretive dramatics.
7. Helping with the problem of caring for the partially completed and finished products: temporary storage for paintings, a place for clay objects to dry, and so on.

Providing for a Rhythm of Work, Rest, and Play. Children should not be held to one type of work or activity for long periods of time. In this sense "long time" refers to fatigue and attention span rather than to the actual numbers of minutes. A suitable length of time for any given work will depend upon the age and maturity of the children and the type of activity. For instance, for ten-year-olds an hour of active work involving moving about the room would probably not be too long. On the other hand, more than twenty minutes of inactive reading for seven-year-olds would probably be questionable. It is particularly important that young children of elementary-school age have frequent opportunity to exercise vigorously; it is equally important that periodically they relax and rest.

This rhythm of work, rest, and play in the school program is necessary if the physical and emotional needs of children are to be met. Many schools now make arrangements for the early-elementary children to rest lying down stretched out on rugs on the floor or on cots. In the later-elementary grades children, rather than lying down, often rest in their seats. Rest is sometimes accompanied by quiet music or the teacher's reading of stories. Schools all over the country are finding ways of providing light refreshments preceding or following the rest period. Milk or fruit juice with crackers contributes to relaxation and gives new energy for the work and play ahead. Modern school buildings contain rooms where a few children who need more rest can go for longer periods of relaxation

and sleep. Increasingly, schools are providing that each classroom group takes its recess time when the children are ready for it, rather than the whole school going to the playground at the same time. The teacher and the class group plan to use the playground when they are ready for exercise or relaxation.

In your beginning participation you might contribute to the provision of a desirable rhythm of work, rest, and play in one or more of the following ways:

1. Assist primary children in finding places for their rugs or mats at rest time; help the restless children to relax and become quiet; and supervise the putting away of equipment when the rest time is over.
2. Read occasionally to the children during rest time or play soothing musical recordings.
3. Volunteer to take the group to the playground to teach them a new running game.
4. Volunteer to supervise the final preparation of the food for midmorning lunch, the setting of the tables, and the cleaning up afterwards.
5. Consider what the children have been doing the previous half hour when you are taking the group for reading, writing, or other quiet work. They may need first to move about and relax before you can hope to succeed with such work.
6. Be aware of your responsibility in work and planning periods that you are not expecting the children to be inactive for long periods. Twenty minutes is a long discussion time for six-year-olds; forty minutes with no activity is a long period for ten-year-olds. You can help at times by providing for five minutes of an active game in the classroom or by taking the children to the playground for ten minutes of running and jumping.

Providing for Coöperative Activities Involving the Whole School. A school is a community in itself, made up of children, teachers, administrators, maintenance workers, and service people. Any group of children and their teacher must coördinate their activities with the other members of the school community. Arrangements for school living involve agreements as to the use of the playground, lunch room, toilets, hallways, special rooms, lawns, flower beds, and materials of all kinds. Assemblies, provisions for safety, parent meetings, field days, special-interest groups, and so on are all aspects of school living to which each classroom group contributes. In modern schools children have a large part in this whole-school living, not only by participating, but in planning and governing through representative student councils. Thus each classroom group does not live completely by itself but is in a real sense part of a school community. Each group must carefully plan, participate, and evaluate in relation to all-school activities.

In your beginning participation you might contribute to school living in one or more of the following ways:

1. Orient yourself as soon as possible to school rules, agreements, and understandings relative to any living in the school which involves interrelationships between your classroom group and other persons in the school.

2. Go to the playground with the children, help supervise the lunchroom, and accept some responsibility for the way children behave in the hallways and on the stairs. What children do before school begins in the morning, at recess time, at noon, and after school are continuous problems in most elementary schools. Your critic teacher will appreciate any assistance you can give him by sharing responsibility for supervising the children at these times.

3. Be ready to help supervise the children wherever they work or play in the building. On rainy or cold mornings children may come into the building earlier.

4. Plan, with your critic teacher, a variety of satisfactory recreational activities for indoor recess on rainy days. It is especially important that recess time not be shortened in inclement weather.

5. Volunteer to work with a group of children to arrange an attractive display on an unused bulletin board in the hallway.

6. Suggest to the teacher that you would like to work with the children in weeding a flower bed on the school ground.

7. Attend a student-council meeting with your room representatives and help them prepare to report to their classmates.

8. Assist in any way you can at meetings of parents and teachers. Help with arranging furniture, pouring coffee, and cleaning up afterwards. You will of course take advantage of every opportunity to meet and know the parents.

9. Volunteer to work with your critic teacher in supervising a special-interest group.

10. Assume responsibility for taking a sick child to the nurse and for informing all persons concerned of the situation.

Providing for Evaluating. In the modern elementary school, activities by which individuals and groups evaluate the effectiveness of school living constitute a vital part of the program. Evaluation is essentially a matter of determining how well those concerned do what they set out to do. Individuals and groups plan in terms of purposes, goals, and values; they act; and they evaluate. Evaluation includes all of those activities by which evidence is gathered and weighed in relation to the accomplishment of objectives. The individual child evaluates his own growth; the group evaluates its progress. The teacher, of course, has a leadership rôle in both individual and group evaluation. Evidence is gathered, weighed, and recorded by the teacher through:

1. Conferences with individual children
2. Conferences with small groups of children
3. Discussion involving the entire classroom group
4. Individual records of the progress of each child
5. Anecdotal records and samples of work kept by the teacher
6. Standardized achievement tests
7. Tests of physical and social development

8. Paper-and-pencil tests prepared and administered periodically by the teacher.

Traditionally, evaluation has been understood to be periodic measuring of academic progress. The teacher frequently gave tests at the end of the week in the various subjects and skills. In addition to these tests, examinations were administered each month before report-card time. Modern teachers recognize that evaluation is a process that goes on all through the school day, and day after day. They know that evaluation is part of planning and part of acting. They know, further, that sensible evaluation is a process in which the children have a large share.

In your beginning participation as a student teacher you will have an opportunity to help with evaluation in one or more of the following ways:

1. Help a committee of children evaluate a job for which they have accepted responsibility.
2. Assist the teacher by correcting written work or grading paper-and-pencil tests.
3. Help with the work of administering standardized tests. For example, you might distribute the papers and see that children have proper equipment. Or you might take part of the group to another room while the test is being given. You can surely be of some assistance in scoring and recording the results.
4. Join in the discussion when the whole group is evaluating, contributing evidence of work effectively done.
5. Talk with a child to help him evaluate some phase of his work.
6. Assist the teacher with his records of the work of individual children. For example, you might volunteer to file in each child's folder a sample of handwriting for a given date.

To repeat what was said at the beginning of this chapter, how much you contribute in your beginning participation will depend largely upon your sensitivity to the whole situation and an eagerness to be genuinely helpful. Use your modifications and adaptations of the suggestions made throughout the chapter. Think carefully about your proposed participation and solicit the guidance and evaluation of your critic teacher. This participation at the beginning of your student teaching will set the tone for your relations with the children and the critic teacher throughout your entire student-teaching experience.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

Your work with children in the early weeks of student teaching provides fresh motivation for thoughtfully inventorying your teaching strengths and weaknesses. These criteria for self-evaluation will help you appraise objectively your insight into the needs of children of elementary-school age.

1. *Your Understanding of Children's Needs:*

In what ways are you growing in your understanding of the basic needs of children? What are you doing to broaden, deepen, and strengthen your understanding of basic needs? How has your knowledge of children's needs influenced your participation?

2. *Your Understanding of School Programs for Meeting Children's Needs:*

What in your judgment are the most significant differences between the subject-centered, the correlated, and the integrated programs? Which type of curriculum program most nearly describes your school? What evidence did you use to arrive at this estimate of the curriculum of your school? How have you evaluated the typical daily schedule in your classroom in terms of the basic needs of children? What changes, if any, do you think desirable? How has your understanding of the type of school program in which you are working influenced your participation?

3. *Your Understanding of Principles of Organization of the School Day:*

What have you observed in your room concerning each of the seven suggested provisions for the daily program in relation to the basic needs of children? Summarize your participation to date by listing the specific ways you have contributed in each phase of the daily program: planning; integrating experiences; improvement of skills; cooperative activities involving the whole school; rhythm of work, rest and play; art experiences; evaluating.

4. *Appraisal of the Effectiveness of Your Participation:*

With reference to your summary of participation above, which of these things did you find easiest to do? Which of them were most difficult for you? What inferences can you make from this analysis?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. To what extent do you accept the discussion of the basic needs of children which is offered in this chapter? What changes or modifications do you suggest?

2. What are some of the changes in elementary-school practices that have come about through increased knowledge on the part of teachers of the physiological needs of young children?

3. "The modern elementary school gives a high priority to satisfying the emotional-social needs of children" is an opinion frequently voiced. How are modern teachers meeting this challenge of providing classroom atmosphere conducive to mental health?

4. Do the seven provisions for the daily program suggested in this chapter include the most important aspects of school living? Which of these important provisions is being met most adequately in your student-teaching classroom?

5. Contribute for group discussion a description of one of your participation experiences, explaining how it was satisfying to you.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Dewey, John, *Experience and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1938).

You will find this entire book worth while. Chapter 1, "Traditional vs Progressive Education," and Chapter 7, "Progressive Organization of Subject Matter," are particularly recommended.

GESELL, Arnold, and LIG, Frances L., *The Child from Five to Ten* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1946).

This volume presents a summary of the behavior of the child at each age level from five to ten. It is a useful book for teachers who are interested in understanding their children and the characteristics of their growth patterns during the elementary-school years. Part 2, "The Growing Child," is especially helpful.

HYMES, James L. Jr., *A Pound of Prevention: How Teachers Can Meet the Emotional Needs of Young Children* (New York, Teachers Service Committee on the Emotional Needs of Children, 1947).

This informal discussion for teachers points out how the "war babies" who are now in the elementary school must find school a place that meets their emotional needs.

JERSILD, Arthur T., et al., *Child Development and the Curriculum* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946).

These authors analyze and interpret child development and draw inferences for the elementary-school curriculum. Chapter V, "The Elementary-School Child," should be of real value to you.

OTTO, Henry J., *Principles of Elementary Education* (New York, Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1949).

This practical readable book you will find helpful. Chapter IX, "Organizing the School Program," is pertinent to contributing through participation.

PRESCOTT, D. A., *Emotion and the Educative Process* (Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1938).

This important study has had a major influence upon elementary-school practice. Chapter VI, "Basic Personality Needs and the Conditions Which Frustrate Them," is particularly pertinent.

SIEBER, Lorraine, *Their First Years at School* (Los Angeles, California, Los Angeles County Board of Education, 1939).

This practical volume was written as a course of study for teachers of the early-elementary grades in Los Angeles County. Part III, "Concepts and Insights Basic to Curriculum Planning," will be useful for you in connection with your participation.

STRATHEIMER, F. B., FORKNER, Haruden L., and McKIM, Margaret G., *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947).

Of interest in this book are the extensive charts dealing with the life situations that learners face. Chapter 3, "The Children We Teach, A Guide to Curriculum Development," is particularly recommended for reading that relates to participation.

The Faculty of the University School, *How Children Develop* (Columbus, Ohio, College of Education, Ohio State University, 1946).

Here is a clearly written, well-organized handbook which considers stages in development from infancy through adolescence. At each stage the child needs of maintaining personal health, achieving a sense of security, developing a sense of achievement, and developing interests and appreciations are stressed. Your attention is invited to Part 3, "Early Childhood (age 6-9)," and Part 4, "Middle Childhood (age 9-11)."

The Stanford University Education Faculty, *The Challenge of Education* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937).

Chapter IX, "The Role of the Teacher in the Elementary School," offers a general discussion of the challenge of education to the modern teacher.

PART TWO

Utilization of Modern Practices

CHAPTER IV

Planning Your Work

Those who reach their goals most directly and efficiently are those who have carefully planned their activities. Without a definite plan, well thought through, energy will be spent at random in confused, contradictory efforts. With a plan, actions can be organized in such a sequence that each move is toward the goal. Planning gives security in choosing and carrying forward each activity, for there is less danger of being "thrown off the track" by irrelevant questions, aimless, wandering discussion, useless work, or disintegrative play.

There is much wisdom in the old folk-saying that "Life is just one problem after another." For those who wander aimlessly through life meeting each event as a crisis, this saying implies a series of frustrating experiences. For modern teachers who intelligently plan their use of time the saying connotes a healthy attitude toward meeting challenges. Problem-solving is really the essence of living. The avoidance of problems is an effort to escape from the realities of life.

Planning becomes even more significant as one recognizes that, in a modern educational program, objectives are broader than the mere covering of a given number of pages or the memorizing of facts. The teacher's responsibility is to organize and guide activities so that children learn to think, plan, work together, and carry through accepted responsibilities. In terms of needs for emotional health and balance, it is imperative that each person shares in making decisions about those things that concern him. Furthermore, this sharing in decisions is the only effective preparation for assuming the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy. To provide such opportunities for each child—and at the same time to stimulate and guide the selection of experiences suitable to the maturity level, interests, and abilities of each individual—requires thoughtful planning by the teacher.

WHAT PLANNING MEANS

Planning is an adventure in problem solving. Since everyone has problems, everyone plans to some extent and for some purpose. Good planning takes into account the scope of the problem, the distance of the goal or objective, and the means available for use in achieving it.

In no aspect of human endeavor is planning more important than in teaching. It would be difficult to find a sphere of activity where good planning is more worth while or where poor planning shows up more quickly. Where children are subjected to poor planning by their teachers, the entire school is affected, as well as the one classroom group. Good planning means good teaching.

A Working Definition of Planning. A plan may be a rigid draft, form, or diagram. Or it may be a flexible arrangement, procedure, or method of action. For effective teaching, plans must be flexible. Planning is selecting the best route to an objective. Thus it is obvious that planning is closely related to purposing, since objectives are selected in terms of purposes. Any discussion of effective planning in the modern elementary school assumes that the planner has conscious purposes, has choices to make, and has a flexible program in which to achieve those purposes through the choice of appropriate means. It also assumes that the entire school staff cooperates in agreeing upon major objectives and over-all plans for achieving them.

Choices are always more or less limited. The choice of a route for reaching an objective is determined to a large extent by the advantages and limitations of the environment. Such pertinent factors for teachers include the maturity of the children, the school curriculum, the available materials, and the cooperation of the staff, parents, and other community members. For example, the planning of a science experience may involve the cooperation of a science teacher, the use of a laboratory, and the accumulation of necessary equipment. A trip cannot be taken without planning for a bus, arranging with the street car company, or securing the assistance of parents to drive their cars.

The school curriculum may be broad and functional, or it may appear quite formal. Planning is necessary in either case. Much planning is necessary in leading up to the wise selection of a broad unit and in carrying it through. Forethought is required in guiding the selection of topics by which it is hoped that two or more subjects may be correlated. If you are planning a lesson in a textbook, your choices will be limited. However, there are still some choices of ways to present the content, of aspects to emphasize, and of supplementary materials to use. It is important to remember that there are several levels of planning, that plans point toward objectives, and that one must have at least two ideas if he is to make a choice.

As the program of the school broadens in scope and as the school assumes more responsibilities, it is necessary that there be greater freedom in ways of achieving purposes. Uniform patterns of teaching, uniform daily schedules, uniform materials all narrow the scope of the teacher's planning and, apparently, make it easier for him. But these limitations on

make the most of a correlated program, the student teacher must locate supplementary materials, carefully select them, and make plans for their use.

In an integrated program, the student teacher faces an even greater challenge to his ability to plan. He must review the previous broad units worked out by the classroom group, their levels of understanding and achievement in the units completed, and the present activities and plans of the children and the critic teacher. He must gain an understanding of the purposes and program of the school, the scope and sequence organization of the curriculum, and how the work of the classroom to which he is assigned is coordinated with the program of the school.

The student teacher may begin his work at a time when a broad unit is already in progress. He may then plan ways of carrying on the study previously selected. In most situations, it is hoped, the student teacher may plan, introduce, and carry through a unit with the guidance of the critic teacher.

In all types of programs the student teacher will plan for the improvement of skills, for meeting the needs of the individuals within the group, for providing suitable materials adapted to individual differences, and for improving the quality of human relations. He will plan with individual children, with small groups or committees, and with the entire class. There is need to plan various techniques for doing different kinds of jobs. Such planning will result in more effective techniques and in teaching of truly professional quality.

PLANNING WITH THE CRITIC TEACHER

Your experiences as a student teacher will be much more satisfactory and useful if you keep in mind that your critic teacher has had more opportunity to study the children than you have had. He knows their past experiences and has a broader understanding of their needs than you can be expected to have acquired. You will wish to avail yourself of the critic teacher's knowledge and experience. Careful planning with him will help you to know the children better as well as enable you to fit more smoothly into the program.

Beginning Your Pre-planning. Early conferences are desirable. The sooner you schedule planning sessions with your critic teacher the more certain you will be in pre-planning your own work. You will need to find out what plans are possible and desirable. This is particularly important as you begin the tentative development of long-range plans. The type of program followed in your classroom, the expectations of the critic teacher, and the amount of freedom you will have in developing your teaching all influence your planning.

In preparing for pre-planning with the critic teacher you will need to do background reading, including useful material from professional courses you have taken, case histories of the children, and subject matter of possible use by the group. You should study any available reports of units previously developed by the group and refer to suggestions included in courses of study. You will discuss with the critic teacher the curriculum plan of the school, work out with him the criteria for an acceptable study in harmony with the school program, and consider topics of potential interest to the children. It will be necessary for you to explore possibilities for experiences and determine the availability of materials related to topics which you select before you suggest them to the critic teacher.

You will find it helpful to make tentative outlines. Your outlines should be balanced, so that no important provision in the program is neglected. Your tentative outline should, at many points, include alternate suggestions. Points at which alternate suggestions might well be offered include construction activities, committee groupings, organization of reading groups, educational trips, supervision of rest time, rainy-day recess activities, and the like. The outlines should include plans for the use of school equipment and facilities, the meeting of special needs of individual children, and the use of special staff members who may be available. In pre-planning, the rôle of specialists, such as the teachers of art, music, or physical education, must be considered. You will want to remember that these outlines are tentative and exploratory. They only map out possibilities that may prove practicable.

Discussing Preliminary Plans. You have probably already found that planning takes time. It also takes time for the critic teacher to work with you: to study your plans, to judge their practicality, and to make suggestions for improving them. You will save the time and energy of two busy people if your pre-planning is well enough thought through. Thus the discussion will be concerned with thinking through together major considerations in planning your future work with the children.

The discussion of your plans with the critic teacher should be in a matter-of-fact, friendly manner. Remember that the critic teacher wants to help you. An open-minded, coöperative attitude on your part is necessary. When the critic teacher sits down with you to go over your tentative plans, consider his proposals seriously and critically, and be clear about his suggestions for your re-planning. For example, if your critic teacher points out that you have not made sufficient provisions for the slow readers, consider with him possible sources of appropriate easy reading material and think further together about experiences which will meet the problems of these children. In these early discussions you will want to consider realistically with your critic teacher the alternate suggestions in your outline. If you can eliminate the impractical and ill-advised at this

point, your planning will be moved ahead appreciably. During the discussion many further helpful suggestions will surely come out for alternate plans and possible variations of procedure so that you will be able, at the close of the conference, to leave the discussion with a wealth of "raw material" for your next steps in planning.

Reaching Agreement on Preliminary Plans. It is especially important that definite understandings and agreements are reached between you and the critic teacher before you begin to put your plans into effect. Otherwise you may be working at cross-purposes or fail to achieve your goals. The results of not making plans clear or reaching definite agreements are exemplified by the case of a student teacher who proposed a study of ways in which animals help man. The student teacher contemplated two trips in the unit activities—an early trip to a zoo, a later trip to a farm. In the discussion with the critic teacher this was not made entirely clear. Understanding that one trip was planned, either to the zoo or to a farm, the critic teacher agreed. Later it was not possible to provide the trip to the farm and the research activities of the unit were seriously limited.

Frank attitudes and explanations are essential in reaching agreement with the critic teacher upon your plans. While it is true that student teaching is the culmination of a professional program, you have not tested your knowledge and ability through extensive experience. A few student teachers, feeling uncertain of themselves and insecure, attempt to hide or "cover up" feelings of inadequacy with an assured manner. Such camouflage causes experienced teachers to say that beginning teachers think they know more than they will after several years of actual teaching experience. If a student teacher cannot exchange ideas, explain and compare plans, and react impersonally to criticism, he cannot expect to receive real help in planning.

Regular Discussions Concerning Progress. Naturally, you will not want to make mistakes and will plan carefully to avoid them. However, you may expect to make some mistakes. You may miss opportunities for developing concepts, for furthering interests, and for reaching agreements with the children. Frequent, regular conferences with your critic teacher will be invaluable in helping you avoid errors, repair mistakes, and make greater use of appropriate teaching opportunities or "psychological moments." It may be said that the term of student teaching is probably the only opportunity you will ever have to "make mistakes free" with a friendly, experienced teacher at hand to help you overcome them.

PLANNING FOR CHILDREN

It has been repeatedly emphasized that planning is a continuous process. It is done for a variety of purposes and takes place under many conditions.

The term "creative teaching" does not mean the activities of an impractical dreamer who follows the interests of children, however shallow or wherever they may lead. Rather, it means that a teacher is exceedingly competent in diagnosing situations and is able to create suitable modifications to fit conditions as they change. Such a creative teacher is intelligently flexible because he has a careful plan to modify. You can be more creative in teaching as a result of planning, for true creative teaching develops a program effective in meeting the needs of children and in reaching accepted goals.

Types of Teaching Plans. Plans for teaching may be classified under four major types, in terms of the time involved. The first type may be termed "pre-planning." As you now know, pre-planning is exploratory investigation of suitable ways for the group to proceed. Thus, later planning is made easier and more useful.

The second type of planning is usually designated as the "long-range" plan. This plan is comprehensive in scope, includes the work of the whole group for all subjects or activities, and covers a long period of time ranging from several weeks or months to an entire school year. The curriculum guides of many state and local school systems establish suggestive long-range plans based upon major social functions or central ideas, including many possible learning activities. In other school systems each building staff independently develops its own objectives and curriculum procedures in terms of the needs of the children it serves. A third type of plan is the "daily plan." This is, of course, a subdivision of the long-range plan for a unit or large topic, and should set forth that part of the program to be accomplished each day. Developing daily plans leads to the fourth type, the plan for a part of a day, such as a work period.

Considerations in Planning for Children. You have been identifying the objectives of the school as a basis for your planning and teaching. By now you have an understanding of the program of the school. The next step is to determine the answer to such questions as the following, some of which you have already answered in your observation, participation, and pre-planning:

1. How long am I going to be in this school?
2. How soon am I going to have direct responsibility for teaching?
3. How much responsibility will I have?
4. What are the characteristics of the group?
5. What are the needs of the children which I should try to meet?
6. What strong interests and purposes do the children have?
7. What previous curricular experiences have the children had?
8. How closely am I expected to follow the present program?
9. What ways, methods, and materials are available for my use in meeting my responsibilities?

You will find it easier to plan in terms of the needs of the group if, at this time, you refer back to your observations of the children as a group and

as individuals and if you consider critically again the concept of needs which has guided your participation.

Long-range Planning. As has been already indicated, long-range plans may cover periods ranging from several weeks to a full school year. As a student teacher, your long-range plans must be limited to the period of time for which you are assigned to the group. They should, of course, harmonize with the more extensive plans of the critic teacher for his year's work with the children.

The long-range plans must be realistic. They must be made within the framework of the type of situation in which you are working. In other words, you will have to make them in terms of whether your teaching must be based upon textbooks, may utilize correlations, or may be of the integrative type. They must also be realistic in terms of the daily schedule within which you will be teaching. Will you have opportunities for working on a broad unit? Will there be periods for the skills? Will you have responsibilities for the aesthetics? In these long-range plans you will record your thinking about what you might do with the children and how you propose going about it. Such plans must, of course, be flexible and include alternatives. On the other hand, they should reflect your purposes and show that you have clear ideas about the direction of your teaching.

In recording your long-range plans, you will need to have certain basic guides:

1. *State the goals you hope to achieve with the children.* Even though the school may have stated its goals in writing, these will necessarily be broad and general. Your statement of goals will presume the school goals but, more than this, will reflect your values and will emphasize your major concerns in meeting the needs of the children whom you will teach. Your statements of goals should be simple, direct, couched in your own language. They should be statements only of those things toward which you consciously intend to work. You might organize your statements of goals in reference to such interrelated areas as: understandings of and generalizations from content information; attitudes and appreciations; abilities and skills; individual and group behavior. In fact, you might well be keeping a list of goals for each of these areas to which you continue to add as you teach.

2. *Organize your proposals about areas of curriculum experience.* You will want to organize your plans so that they clearly represent your thinking in relation to those large areas of the curriculum for which you will be directly responsible. You may have in your long-range plans a section that pertains to your broad unit of work. Still other sections may include your proposals for the language arts, mathematics, physical education, and so on. Although these areas have significant relationships, your planning has to be developed in terms of specific times in the school day. To use these plans wisely yourself and to confer efficiently with your critic teacher, these long-range plans must be organized so that proposals for various areas of the curriculum may be seen as a whole and used as guides to practical daily planning.

Although your long-range plans will, for the most part, be organized about the major areas of the curriculum, you might need additional sections for

such responsibilities as an assembly program, rest periods, a special-day celebration, and so on.

3. *State clearly your proposed procedures in terms of time sequence.* As you project your plans for each major curriculum area, you will need to consider the order in which the experiences will take place. You will have to start somewhere, go somewhere, and end somewhere. Whether you are planning for a broad unit of work, certain skills, a science interest, or music, you will need to decide tentatively what comes first and what next. For example, in the section of your plans pertaining to broad-unit work, you would record, in order, your proposals for selecting the unit, getting started, finding information, carrying on activities, culminating the experience, and evaluating. As you work through the time sequence, you will want to make a record of the materials that are readily available and those which the children and you will need to seek out.

You know, of course, that these long-range plans are only tentative guides for your planning with children. They are only possible resources. Much of what you propose will be modified, discarded, or left undone. Good long-range plans deliberately include more than you will finally be able to do. Out of this abundant long-range planning come the leads for the most appropriate experiences for children.

Planning for a School Day. As long as the school was considered an institution concerned only with the inculcation of subject matter, planning the school day was a routine procedure. The teacher merely divided the number of subjects to be taught into the number of minutes in the school day. Each period was devoted to teaching a separate subject. Usually the order of subjects in the daily program followed a uniform pattern. Arithmetic, considered the most difficult subject, was often placed in the first period in the morning because it was assumed that the minds of children were clearest at that time. Of course, you now know that this is a false assumption. Throughout the day "difficult" and "easy" subjects were alternated. The dreary monotony of the mechanical grind was changed by playing educational "games" and lightened by recesses.

A further refinement in those early programs was to lengthen the periods devoted to important or difficult subjects, such as arithmetic and reading. Each subject was taught in isolation from the other subjects. For example, during a single school day a group might move from figuring distances or percentages in arithmetic to a study of the laying of the Trans-Atlantic Cable in history, to the Lowlands of the Netherlands in geography, to diagramming sentences in English, to Treasure Island in reading, to the music of early American composers, without recognizing or investigating any interrelationships between the topics. Equally ignored was the significance of the learnings to the out-of-school lives of the children.

In such a plan as that described above, little, if any, time was scheduled during the school day for developing the social competence of children, their aesthetic appreciations, or their ability to think accurately, purpose-

fully, and independently. The school day was planned without reference to the total development of those most affected—the children.

The daily planning of the modern school is based upon the large objectives agreed upon by the staff. It develops from the long-range plans that have been projected. In daily planning the teacher works consciously toward achieving his long-range goals as well as toward meeting emerging and immediate needs of the children. The experiences provided through daily planning should meet accepted criteria if such plans are timely in:

1. Utilizing the purposes, stimulating the interests, and challenging the abilities of the children in the group.
2. Giving children opportunities to think, plan, and accept responsibility.
3. Achieving in some degree the accepted objectives of the school and grade.
4. Synchronizing the room program with the program of the whole building.
5. Providing opportunity for the teacher to work with each child.

In daily planning to meet these criteria, the aim is to provide a day filled with natural and wholesome activities which have meaning and purpose for children. The planning for a day must be flexible: to take advantage of the psychological moment of "striking while the iron is hot"; to allow for altered circumstances. Yet the daily program must be based upon an orderly sequence of experiences. In planning for young children, you will remember that they need the security of knowing what the general pattern of activities in time sequence will be. In planning for later elementary-grade children, you will keep in mind that the children will consider with you at the beginning of a day the work to be done, the sequence of experiences, and the time allotments for each. If we wish children to develop ability to plan and to become self-directive, it is our responsibility to provide a time framework within which they may plan.

Children also need the security of well-managed time. Some student teachers are not sufficiently aware of the passing of time and have difficulty in staying with the schedule. It is important that children learn to be prompt in meeting appointments and the teacher must help them do so. For example, if the group is due at the shop at ten o'clock, you should see that previous activities are concluded in an orderly and satisfying fashion so that the appointment may be kept without disorganizing haste. As you work on daily plans, the time framework must be consciously in your thinking so that not too much or too little is projected for a given period.

You will find it helpful in your daily planning to organize in writing your thinking in relation to blocks of time allotted to:

1. *Preparation for the day.* Before school starts the work materials needed for the day's activities will be assembled, books and magazines arranged, furniture grouped for use, and other necessary housekeeping chores attended to.

Occasionally children can help with such activities. Final arrangements for use during the day of such facilities as the library or shop, checking with another teacher on a cooperative undertaking, and so on, may be done during this time.

2. *Sharing periods.* These start the children's school day on a friendly, social note through exchanging news, sharing prized possessions and useful materials. Your thinking might be directed to considering children who need to be drawn out, ways of improving expressions of appreciation, securing a balance in types of materials shared, and care of materials.

3. *Planning periods.* Immediately following the sharing period, the children consider their plans for the day. Children improve their ability to plan and work together through such experiences. With teacher guidance, the children review what they have accomplished, decide what is to be done and when, and set up a tentative plan for the work of the day. You are reminded that certain activities such as lunch, physical education, and the use of a shop or music room, must be planned on a whole-school basis. Your planning might include consideration of how children can intelligently participate, the limitations within which group decisions can be reached, and the methods to be utilized in reaching decisions.

4. *Work periods.* The children go from their planning period into various phases of work which they have planned to do. In many modern schools this period is devoted to activities centering around the broad unit of work—dependent reading, committee meetings, preparing reports, sketching murals, and the like. In schools organized on the basis of separate subjects this work may go on in the time allotted to geography, history, or science. Your planning will consider the particular work to be done, how it is to be organized, and the material which will be needed.

5. *Skills periods.* In most schools a generous block of time, approximating a third of the school day, is regularly scheduled for work on skills. Skill learnings selected for special emphasis are directed to needs which appear in broad-unit work, other school experiences, and out-of-school living. In planning for skills periods you will consider providing functional learnings for the whole group, helping small groups with common weaknesses, and giving remedial assistance to individuals. In planning you will want to consider how the large block of time is to be divided for various skills involved in reading, handwriting, spelling, computation, and so on. Your procedures should be carefully thought through in terms of priority of needs, functional presentation, appropriate material, and purposeful practice. Time-consuming though it may be, in the long run it is economical that you be thoroughly familiar with the practice material the children are to use.

6. *Aesthetic activities.* This block of time, so often neglected or omitted altogether, can be one of the most valuable. The creative activities may be individual, small-group, or whole-group undertakings. It is particularly important that children have opportunity for some free-choice creative experiences through which they may explore different media of expression. As children develop special interests and improve unique abilities they gain satisfactions that enrich their personal living. In planning you should give thought to "process" versus "product" values, individual versus social values. You should consider desirable explorations in various media of expression, appreciations of the work of the group as well as that of great artists, and ways to help individuals achieve satisfying art products.

7. *Science and health experiences.* Modern elementary schools provide time for children to learn meaningfully about their physical-natural world and their own bodies. Content is organized functionally, in the light of children's questions and curiosities. Children are given direct rather than purely verbal experiences, with emphasis on viewing and experimenting with concrete materials, testing hypotheses, and utilizing their learnings in their daily living. In your planning for science and health activities, you will want to think through the best ways to present specific science and health concepts, the equipment and materials needed, and the valid scientific generalizations to be reached.

8. *Exercise, relaxation, and rest.* You are well aware of children's need for a rhythm of work, rest, and relaxing play. In planning for rest periods you will want to consider the amount of time desirable; the securing, use, and storing of mats, rugs, or cots; stories or musical recordings that you might have ready for use; ways in which you might help particular children relax; and ways to anticipate and avoid interruptions. In planning for vigorous exercise and play you will want to think about how you will teach appropriate games and skills, your rôle in supervision, and the importance of some free-choice time. In thinking about the whole day you will try to anticipate those times when children will need short periods of relaxing relief from concentrated work.

9. *Evaluation.* Coming at the end of the day, this period may be short. The group considers what has been accomplished, methods of work and materials they have used, goals they have achieved, and responsibilities not yet carried out. In considering this block of time, close reference to the responsibilities children accepted in the morning planning period will help build a sense of achievement. The latter part of the period may be used to project tentative activities for the following day, thus establishing continuity. Your planning for evaluation may well include ways of coöperatively developing criteria for appraising school work. You will also plan how to help children see relationships between their activities in school and their out-of-school living. At this time attention is given to informally preparing children to interpret to parents their school work, and to projecting with them desirable "homework" activities.

As you write your daily plans, remember to record specific, concrete proposals. While you probably will not use them just as you anticipated they might work out, they will give you confidence that you are prepared for the day's work; they will assure you that you will not at any point be left "empty handed"; and they will give your critic teacher and you significant points of departure for discussion both of your effectiveness in planning and of your work with children.

Planning for a Single Block of Time. Planning for a single block of time is essentially only an elaboration or application of what has just been suggested concerning daily planning. It merely helps you carry the specifics of planning one step farther. Educationally, a good day is achieved as each part develops naturally and is lived through in successful realization of all its potentialities for learning. Such an achievement depends upon careful planning of each period and smooth performance in adapting and carrying out the activities planned.



Los Angeles, Calif., Public School

"I quickly learned that planning goes on throughout the day in a variety of situations."

St. Louis, Mo., Public School



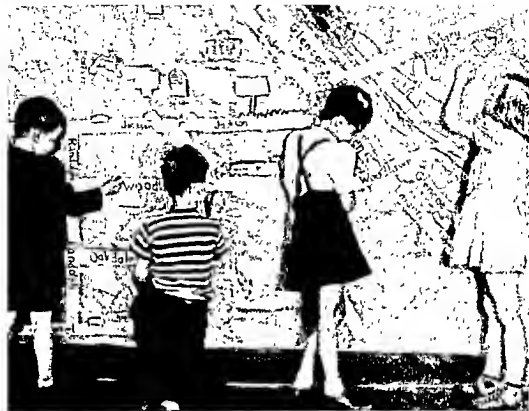


Battle Creek, Mich., Public Sc

obtained first-hand evidence that no learning experience is more valuable than socially useful work, which actually improves living."

St. Louis, Mo., Public S





Glencoe, Ill., Public School

"The children gained so much from the activities of our broad unit of work."



Los Angeles, Calif., Public School



Petersburg, Va., Public Schools

"The children and I have worked hard to keep our school environment an attractive, healthful one in which to live together."



Northwestern State College Elementary School, Natchitoches, La.

For many student teachers the first complete responsibility for planning the work of children is that of a single phase of the day's work, such as the sharing period, the work period, the skills period, or directing activities in a play period. If you are working in a correlated program or in a school where subjects are taught separately, your first planning may be the lesson plan for a single subject.

In no sense are there formal steps either in planning or working with children. There are, however, considerations which must not be overlooked. To help you think through your plans for a single block of time, the following guides, presented in what seems to be a logical order, may prove helpful:

1. Summarize in your thinking what has been done before and determine what needs to be done next.
2. Develop specific goals for the time involved.
3. Make an approximation of what can be done in the allotted time.
4. Consider to what extent the children can be involved in the planning.
5. Make a tentative list of ideas to be emphasized and work to be accomplished.
6. Outline your tentative procedures concisely, emphasizing especially ways to begin and end.
7. Decide upon examples, explanations, and illustrations that might prove useful.
8. Jot down a list of materials to be used.
9. Outline, very briefly, tentative suggestions for outcomes that may serve to begin work the following day.

PLANNING WITH CHILDREN

Children are continually thinking, planning, carrying out plans, judging, and generalizing. This is natural, developmental behavior for normal children who are exploring their world, discovering their abilities, and testing their powers to control their environment. Competent teachers attempt to preserve, recapture, or stimulate the curiosity and alert interest of children by planning with them the organized work of the school. You will recall the previous discussions of the needs of children to make decisions about matters that concern them. Teaching is more satisfying and learning is facilitated when children share the responsibility for planning their work.

Arrangements for Planning. The essentials of a social situation provide the best arrangement for planning with children. An attitude of relaxed friendliness and a stimulating, wholesome atmosphere are conducive to coöperative thinking. Social self-control on the part of the teacher of the group encourages a free expression of ideas by children.

The seating arrangements have a strong influence upon the participation of children in planning. It is almost hopeless to expect children to stimulate each other, exchange ideas freely, advance common interest, reach agree-

ments, and set up procedures for carrying out decisions while looking at the backs of the heads of other children. A rigid seating arrangement, with children in rows, one behind the other, sets up an audience situation for the teacher rather than a social, coöperative environment for the children. In such a situation, "planning" often consists of the teacher telling children rather than entering into discussion with them to discover, develop, and utilize their ideas and purposes in educative activities.

If you are doing your student teaching in a classroom equipped with movable furniture, it is well worth the time to shift the furniture into some circular arrangement for planning sessions. Every effort should be made to arrange the seating so that as many children as possible may see the faces of the other children. If the furniture in your classroom is fixed, you may still find it possible to arrange grouping to encourage coöperative planning. Children may sit in pairs in seats; available chairs—such as those used for a reading circle—may be brought to the front of the room facing the fixed seats; or crude furniture may be made by the children. In some classrooms it is entirely practical for children to sit on the floor.

Coöperative planning by children often seems to be a slow, rambling, time-wasting process. Sometimes it actually is. There are at least three ways in which teachers may cause ineffective planning by children. First, the teacher who is overly concerned with a product in terms of pages covered or skill acquired tends to neglect the values in the planning process itself as he short-cuts the discussion and dominates the decisions. Secondly, in many cases teachers underestimate children's ability to think through problems and make arrangements for solving them. In the third place, the teacher expects that children will enter immediately into enthusiastic consideration of any proposal he suggests. Failing such response, due to formal seating arrangements, newness of the idea, lack of previous experience in planning, or other causes, the teacher launches into a lecture or "selling" talk, rather than giving children further opportunity to think together about the proposal.

You will promote good planning by children through providing adequate time for their discussions, by recognizing and appreciating children's potential ability to do group planning, and by making a sincere effort to comprehend children's meanings. While you will avoid dominating the discussion or subtly pushing your own preconceived idea, you will remember that the teacher—rather than acting as a neutral referee—has a leadership rôle in planning with children.

The Planning Period. Planning sessions must be carefully guided if they are to be valuable educative experiences for children. The teacher must be alert to avoid confusion, heated argument, and pointless, rambling talk. An interested expression and enthusiastic manner in hearing comments, proposing questions, identifying problems, pointing out possible solutions,

and asking for further ideas are effective in conducting good planning periods.

There may be several short planning periods during the day, for planning is an important prerequisite to most work of good quality. The major planning period may appropriately follow the sharing period in the morning. The length of the planning period must be adjusted to the maturity of the children. For most five- and six-year olds a planning period probably should not exceed ten to fifteen minutes in length. For seven- and eight-year olds, a planning period of fifteen to twenty minutes is usually appropriate. For older children in the elementary school the planning period may be as long as thirty minutes.

The types of activities which can be planned and the kinds of decisions which can be made will vary with the developmental level of the children. The planning of five- and six-year olds is usually limited to the activities of the day. Their planning in most cases must immediately precede the activity involved. Occasionally these young children may project plans for two or three days in connection with some particularly important event such as a Hallowe'en party or a trip to a farm. In these cases the teacher must provide the continuity. On the other hand, ten- and eleven-year olds are able to plan more comprehensively. They plan for the activities of the entire day and also are capable of projecting some plans weeks into the future.

The nature and scope of activities planned during the period depend to a large extent upon the type of program. If the program depends largely upon textbooks, planning must be concerned chiefly with the use of free-choice periods, the playground period, and desirable ways of covering the lessons assigned. In a correlated program planning may be more extensive. It may begin with discussion of previous activities, include summaries of work done to date, and proceed to the projection of further activities included in the related subjects. In an experience program, utilizing broad units, the planning period usually is one of the most important phases of the work. The children share responsibility for major decisions concerning the progress of the unit study. Hence they have ideas, accept limitations, suggest activities and procedures, defend judgments, reflect upon alternative proposals, compromise, and reach decisions for action.

The primary functions of the planning period are the identification of needs, the discovery and stimulation of interests, the focusing of interests and purposes, the organizing of work, and the reaching of agreement upon responsibilities. Personal interest is an essential factor of a learning attitude. Recognizing children's ideas, sharing their successes, and referring to their past experiences in pointing to future work are sound methods of stimulating interest.

To avoid having a roomful of individualists, each going off on a tangent

of independent study and thereby losing the values of socialization, one must focus discussion upon a central idea. The plans agreed upon should include a variety of activities so that all children may take part successfully. The plans developed should grow out of the needs and desires of the children, carry forward purposes which the children have, and be appropriate to the time and facilities available. You will find that you can guide discussion so that genuineness of purpose and reality of need become apparent and are accepted by the children.

Reaching agreement upon responsibilities and acceptance of specific jobs by children are challenges to the student teacher's poise, tact, initiative, and resourcefulness. As you have observed, if the jobs are authentic and well-planned—matching and challenging the ability of each child yet allowing success—the children will accept them readily. Whether the children volunteer for certain parts of the work or are chosen by the group or the teacher, it is important that each child understands the need and purpose of the job and accepts a personal responsibility for doing it.

Carrying Out Plans. The success with which plans are carried out depends largely upon the skill of the student teacher in planning for and with children. Once plans are made and responsibilities accepted, the work should be carried through to satisfactory completion unless unexpected difficulties of a serious nature are encountered. The abandonment of plans in the face of minor obstacles encourages self-indulgence, indolence, and day-dreaming. Your rôle at this point in helping children carry out plans is to give friendly advice and encouragement and to remind individuals of accepted responsibilities. Emergency conferences for re-planning or the modification of plans will sometimes be necessary. A sensitive student teacher knows when to help a child do his work in order to avoid the development of defeatist attitudes or severe frustration.

Appraising Results and Making Further Plans. A brief consideration of the activities of the previous day and progress toward long-range goals makes an effective beginning for the daily planning period with children. In essence this is asking the question, "Where are we in our work?" During planning periods, you should endeavor to provide situations in which children learn to evaluate their own work and that of others. Appraising work offers opportunity for children to learn how to offer and accept constructive criticism. Appraisals should be in terms of original plans, difficulties met and overcome, and work still to be completed, rather than on the basis of arbitrary standards of perfection. Re-planning and the making of further plans involves the answering of the following questions: How long will it take us to do the job? How much more or how much less should we try to do? Have our purposes changed since we started? How can we overcome the difficulties we have met?

The student teacher must provide leadership and accept responsibility

for the effectiveness of the original planning. Such a teacher leads evaluative discussion rather than criticizes negatively or makes arbitrary judgments in planning with children.

THE WRITTEN PLANS OF THE STUDENT TEACHER

There has been wide variation from time to time and from institution to institution with reference to the writing of plans for teaching. The writing of lesson plans was one of the first techniques used in professional teacher education. These written plans were often detailed and rigid. Frequently more emphasis was placed upon the preparation of written plans than upon the actual teaching of the student. Following that extreme, the writing of plans has been re-directed in its emphasis in most teacher-education programs.

It is now generally true that the written plans of the student teacher are seen in balanced perspective. Requirements are more adaptable to varying situations; plans are written in less detail than formerly and are used as suggestive guides rather than followed rigidly.

You recognize that writing plans to guide you in your teaching requires concentration. You need to outline logically in terms of your purposes and the needs of the children, and think through potential classroom activities. In essence, written plans are records of your thinking about desirable school experiences for children. These written records help guide you in your teaching as well as present a concise picture of your projections on how best to work with your children for the critic teacher or college supervisor.

Forms of Written Plans. No specific pattern can be specified, since particular requirements vary widely. You may be asked to use printed forms, a blank book, a looseleaf notebook, a card file, or a file folder for recording your written plans. It is safe to suggest that, whatever forms are used, your plans be kept in two sections. First should be your long-range plans. The second section should be devoted to your daily plans. As you recall, simple case histories of individual children will help you in your planning. It will also be found useful for you to continue to compile throughout your student teaching a list of suitable learning materials. This cumulative list of suggestive learning materials is a source of reference for daily planning and will be useful in your first year of teaching. Your planning records, then, might well include four parts: long-range plans, daily plans, simple case histories, and materials.

What specifically to write into your records depends so largely upon the school and the type of your program that no example will fit all cases. It is safe to say, however, that until you have acquired considerable experience you will find it desirable to include quite specific suggestions of

leading questions, suitable techniques of teaching, possible activities, and materials.

Using Written Plans. The most important use of written plans is realized in the process of thinking them through and writing them out. There is no substitute for that activity on the part of student teachers. Even the most experienced and creative teachers find it helpful to write out their plans. Having written your plans, you will find it helpful to have them well in mind so that, while you are working with children, you can use them as a guide rather than as a crutch.

Your written plans are useful to your critic teacher and may be referred to by your college supervisor. Most critic teachers have greater reassurance that the work will proceed satisfactorily when their student teachers make available written outlines of their proposed activities. Suggestions and constructive criticism can be given more easily and effectively on the basis of written outlines than from oral explanations of plans. Many student teachers provide spaces in their written plans for brief suggestions or criticisms by the critic teacher. These written suggestions then supplement the conferences between the student teacher and the critic teacher. They serve also as an additional basis for your further consideration of the effectiveness of your planning and teaching.

Student teachers who make the most of opportunities to improve their work appraise their plans. They regularly evaluate their written plans to determine the extent to which the plans are carried out and the success of the plans made. Evaluation is not primarily for the purpose of testing the end-product but for guidance in further planning—for meeting the needs of the children and reaching the objectives agreed upon.

Such appraisal will help you avoid repeating mistakes, especially if you regularly add critical notes to your records at the end of each day's teaching.

Your thought, time, and energy is well spent in planning, for it pulls together your previous learning. Planning gives consistency and direction to your teaching. Good planning is stimulating and rewarding. If you are not now skilled in planning, be encouraged by the knowledge that planning ability can be developed and its techniques learned. You will enjoy the sense of achievement.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

Naturally, you wish to be competent in evaluating your own plans. The following questions are presented for the purpose of helping you to evaluate your plans before applying them and as you use them. This section should be of further use during your first years of teaching, for then you will be your own chief critic.

1. *What Planning Means:*

What is your understanding of the meaning of planning for the teacher in the modern elementary school? What factors of good planning have you considered in developing plans for your student teaching? In what ways do your plans relate to your purposes in teaching?

2. *Planning with the Critic Teacher:*

What major differences are there between your planning and that of your critic teacher? In preparing plans for conferences with the critic teacher, what alternative proposals have you developed? What choices have been agreed upon as available to you in developing your plans for teaching? What arrangements have you made with your critic teacher for regular conferences and for utilizing oral and written suggestions made to you?

3. *Planning for Children:*

What is your understanding of the purposes of the several types of plans for teaching? How completely have you considered the suggested basic guides in making your long-range plans? Your plans for the day? Your plans for a single block of time?

4. *Planning with Children:*

What are the relationships between planning for children and planning with children? In what ways have you provided suitable approaches to your planning with children? What assurances have you that activities you plan with children are related to their purposes? Are adjusted to their levels of maturity?

5. *Recording Your Plans:*

In what ways are your written plans consistent with the program of the school in which you are working? What reasonable, immediate and long-range goals do your written plans include? How do your written plans provide for the wise use of available time by the children and you? In what ways can you further improve your planning to provide for children to work in groups and to work independently? How have your plans included appraisal of available materials and possible experiences? How do your written plans provide for evaluation of the work pursued? What appraisals of your written plans have you sought?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. It may be said that a plan for teaching is like a good road map. How may this simile be exemplified?

2. John Dewey has said that children's interest is obtained by considering and aiming at the conditions that lie back of it and compel it, rather than by thinking about it and aiming at it directly. What does this imply for the teacher's planning?

3. Planning ahead the work that children are to do may be quite undemocratic. How may this danger be avoided?

4. How may a teacher's planning aid in moving the school curriculum from a subject-centered emphasis toward an integrated program?

5. When does a daily plan become a crutch?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Association for Childhood Education, *Knowing When Children Are Ready to Learn* (Washington, D.C., The Association for Childhood Education, 1947).

This pamphlet points out evidences of readiness which you will find helpful in your preliminary planning.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Planning in Education, 1945 Yearbook* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1945).

This is a presentation of the meaning of group planning, its principles, and applications at various grade levels, in staff cooperation, and in school-community relationships. Chapter I, "Education for Social Intelligence," Chapter III, "When Children Plan," and Chapter IV, "Planning at Different Levels of Growth," are suggested for first attention.

DEWEY, John, *Interest and Effort in Education* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913).

Only ninety-six pages, this slim volume has become a classic in educational literature. It is a clear, sound discussion of the rôle of interest in learning and analyzes the factors involved in the development of interest. The entire volume is well worth reading, but the following two chapters are particularly pertinent: Chapter II, "Interest as Direct and Indirect," and Chapter III, "Effort, Thinking, and Motivation."

GILKS, H. H., *Teacher-Pupil Planning* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1941).

As the title indicates, this volume is a monograph on the subject of teachers planning with children. Part II, "The Process of Pupil Participation," should be useful as you work to improve your effectiveness in coöperative planning.

MACOMBER, Freeman Glenn, *Guiding Child Development in the Elementary School* (New York, American Book Company, 1941).

Chapter I, "A Glimpse into the Teaching and Learning Process" may be read before you make definite plans for your teaching. A number of suggestions on presenting particular topics will be found throughout the volume.

MEAD, Cyrus D. and ORTH, Fred W., *The Transitional Public School* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1917).

This volume represents an effort to reconcile the formal subject-matter approach and the experience approach. Your understanding of this widespread problem may be clarified by reading the book. Part Two, "Programming and Organizing Elementary Schools on an Activity-Subject-Matter Basis," you may find helpful as a background for your planning.

OTTO, Henry J., *Principles of Elementary Education* (New York, Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1949).

Chapter Twelve, "Living with Children," will be helpful to you in thinking through your approaches to planning with the children.

White House Conference, *Children in a Democracy*, General Report of the Conference (Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1940).

This brief report of the second session of the White House Conference on "Children in a Democracy" contains ninety-eight recommendations for the purpose of stimulating interest in and effort toward realization of American ideals for children. Of particular interest to you in making preliminary plans are the sections on "The Child and the Family," "Educational Services in the Community," and "Children under Special Disadvantages." This report is such an important document in education that student-teacher groups may well devote time to a special study of it or have a committee report based upon it.

Wofford, Kate V., *Teaching in Small Schools* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1946).

This book presents each chapter in two parts, first a general discussion of the topic, then a specific illustration from the work of a teacher in a small rural school. The following chapters contain suggestions which may be helpful to you in developing your plans for teaching: Chapter IV, "Planning the Work of the Day," Chapter V, "Planning the Long-View Unit of Work," and Chapter VI, "Planning the Daily Lesson."

CHAPTER V

Integrating Experiences for Children

In recent years the term *integration* has been used by educators in discussing educational purposes, methods, and outcomes. The term has been used to describe the learning process, the function of a school in a democracy, the modern school curriculum, teacher-child relationships, the child as a whole, and the school organization. This variety of uses of the word has led to considerable confusion rather than to clarity of thinking about educational problems. It is generally agreed, however, that this important word is useful to the teacher who would talk and write intelligently about modern education. More important than the understanding of the word, of course, is the gaining of insight into the educational concepts which it represents. The aim of this chapter is to help you clarify your thinking as to the meaning of integration and to its implications for guiding the experiences of children in the modern elementary school.

THE MEANING OF INTEGRATIVE EXPERIENCE

Integration is derived from the word *integer* meaning "unit." It has to do with unity, coordination, and harmony. An integrated person is one who lives richly and effectively because he has achieved unity, coordination, and harmony in the various phases of his living. Such a personality acts as a whole. The well-adjusted personality is one characterized by such coordination and unity of action that the parts or aspects have meaning only in terms of their relation to the action of the whole. All thoughts and acts influence each other and in turn modify the behavior of the personality.

"The whole child goes to school" is a statement that you have undoubtedly heard many times. This is another way of saying that the child is continually attempting to achieve unity of action. Day after day he is facing life situations which are to some extent new and unique to him. He reacts, and must react, to these situations with his whole being. Everything that he is—physically, mentally, emotionally, and socially—has an influence upon the effectiveness with which he meets each situation. In a very real sense the success with which the child reacts to these life situations, these problems of daily living, depends upon the extent to which he can function as an integrated personality.

Human Needs and Integration. You will recall the previous discussion of the physiological, emotional-social, and intellectual needs of children. It was pointed out that these needs are not distinct and separate one from another but rather are closely interrelated. The child must, and does, act as a whole. The quality of his thinking, as it influences action, depends largely upon his physical condition, his emotional state, and the social context in which the thinking occurs. Conversely, the effectiveness of thinking and planning action will influence the emotional state, physical well-being, and social adjustment of the child. Thus one must realize that these human needs are intricately bound together, interacting and affecting each other. You cannot isolate and take care of these needs, one by one, in a logical and formal fashion. The human organism is unitary and this condition teachers cannot alter even if they would.

Environment and Integration. So far in this discussion integration has been considered in terms of the individual and the nature of integrated personality. It must be observed, however, that the child interacts with his environment as he strives for unity and harmony of action. Experience, then, has two important elements, the individual and the environment. These, interacting together and affecting each other, constitute an experience for the individual. The extent to which the experience for the individual is integrative will depend to a large degree upon the nature of the environment. The environment itself may be integrative or it may be lacking in unity and coordination.

The ultimate aim of the school is to contribute in a large measure to the development of integrated people living in an integrated society. Americans are committed to the democratic way of life as a way of achieving this aim. Where the environment seems to be disintegrated and disintegrative, undemocratic forces are in operation. For instance, in some communities the Jewish, Negro, or Japanese child struggles for integration of personality in what is potentially for him a disintegrative environment. The same is true of slow-learning children in many of our schools where identical academic goals are established for all children. The child who has been rejected by his parents and lives in a home where he knows he is not wanted is living in an environment which is not for him conducive to the development of integrated personality.

Adjustment to one's environment involves adjustment to the people with whom one comes into contact. The child adjusts to, and learns to live with, many groups of persons. He works and plays with his classroom group, other groups within the school population, his family, his neighborhood group, his church group, and others. The interrelationships between members of a group are described as social integration. Effective social integration has been achieved when a group acts with coordination and in harmony. The school as a democratic institution is committed to improv-

ing not only the behavior of individuals but also group behavior. Modern schools recognize and accept this responsibility and are concerned that each child becomes effective in human relations. In these schools children are learning to live democratically with the group, to work for group goals, to achieve social integration.

Integrative Experience. What kinds of experiences, then, are integrative? Integrative experience provides for work, creative activity, play, and rest, which help the child to achieve a coördination and unity of action through which his problems are solved, his needs are met, his life situations successfully faced. This involves, for the individual, effort directed towards personal goals as well as towards group goals. However, most of the problems a person faces involve other people and the solution of his problems requires group effort.

Since each individual achieves integration in terms of his own purposes, experience that is integrative must be purposeful and meaningful to the child, here and now. Learning is essentially integrative experiencing in which the learner, facing a problem, evolves goals, makes and carries out plans, evaluates results, and incorporates accepted learnings into his organization of values and attitudes. Through this learning experience the individual is better able to cope with the next problem he faces. Thus one can see that truly integrative experience influences behavior in a positive manner. A group which faces a problem goes through the same process as that described above and the integrative group experience influences group behavior.

The Role of the School. What, to be more specific, are the implications of the process of integration for the curriculum of the elementary school? A complete answer to this question cannot be given here in a few paragraphs. It is an inclusive and complicated question and in a real sense this entire book deals with the problem. Many implications for integration are indicated through the various chapters. A few of the major ideas, however, are summarized here:

1. *If learning experiences in the school are to be truly integrative, there must be close connection between that which is being learned and its use in a real life situation.* The child must have insight into the significance of the learning experience; in fact he must possess a readiness for the experience and recognize a need for the learnings involved. What the child learns must help him to live more effectively now. Learning experiences for children which are designed to store up subject matter and to develop skills for use later in life are not in and of themselves integrative.
2. *The curriculum must be concerned with aiding individuals to live richer and better.* Experiences must be provided which influence behavior. Some academic programs provide a type of learning experience which is so far removed from the child's daily living that actually no change in behavior results from the acquisition of this knowledge. The modern school has goals beyond subject-matter mastery.

3. *The personal aims, purposes, and interests of each child must be incorporated to some extent into the program of the school.* This means, of course, that the curriculum of the school must be flexible rather than rigidly planned in advance. It means that the children will have a real part in planning their school experiences.

4. *The curriculum of each child must be directed toward helping him meet with increasing satisfaction his physiological, emotional-social, and intellectual needs.* Unless these needs are met, thwarting emotions inimical to integrative behavior will result. These needs are interrelated. They have emerging implications at different developmental levels. A modern school program must be built squarely on these needs.

5. *The curriculum must provide for rich socializing experiences.* Much of the work and play of children will be done in groups and will be directed towards group goals. Effective social integration is necessary for democratic action.

6. *A major part of the curriculum must be organized about broad units through which children work coöperatively on large common problems and gain insight into, and increased control over, some significant areas of experience.* Skills and subject matter have value only as they are used as tools and materials for living. Within the broad-unit experience skills and subject matter take a secondary rôle which is, of course, their natural position in living outside of the school. Through the study of a large problem, or a significant area of experience, children have an opportunity to use their skill and knowledge in a functional way. Furthermore, the broad-unit experience helps children see the relationships that exist between important aspects of their in-school and out-of-school living.

CHARACTERISTICS OF BROAD UNITS OF WORK

The broad unit of work has come to be accepted as an important part of the program in modern elementary schools which aim to provide for integration of experience. Over the past twenty-five years an increasing number of public schools have been moving toward a curriculum organization that includes broad-unit work. However, as indicated in a previous chapter, many of our schools have made so little progress towards this goal that they are still best described as subject-centered. Other schools have moved in the direction of unit work through the correlation of subject areas about topic units. A smaller number of schools have actually achieved a broad-unit organization to the extent that the curriculum can be accurately described as integrated.

In your student teaching you may find yourself in any one of these types of schools. However, the student teacher is generally expected to use modern methods and is often encouraged, even in subject-centered schools, to work with a broad unit. If you understand the nature of integration, believe in it, and see its implications for learning, your teaching in any kind of a curriculum will be different because of these understandings. The remainder of this chapter will be devoted to further explanation

of the meaning of broad units of work and to suggestions for carrying on this integrated program.

The Meaning of the Broad Unit of Work. The term "unit" is another educational word that has come to have many meanings. The term "broad unit of work," as used in this book, refers to a series of closely related experiences through which children and their teacher attack a large common problem which they recognize as important, or through which they gain further knowledge and understanding of a broad area of experience. These experiences must be purposeful to the learners and related in such a way as to provide for integration. The experiences involved in the broad unit of work make an important contribution to the child's understanding of the world in which he lives and to the development of skills and attitudes by which life is made richer for everyone. The broad unit of work, then, is a large learning situation, a comprehensive learning experience, that includes many smaller related experiences each of which contributes to the depth and understanding of the major one. A broad unit of work will ordinarily occupy a classroom group for several weeks or more and in some cases as long as an entire school term. In providing for integration of experience there will be within the broad unit many opportunities for socialization through committee work and activities involving the whole group.

Distinguishing Traits of the Desirable Broad Unit of Work. The following section suggests nine distinguishing traits, or characteristics, of desirable broad units of work. The student teacher should find this discussion helpful as he guides the selection of a broad unit of work and as he directs and coordinates the activities involved in the total experience.

1. *A broad unit of work should deal with some area of experience or problem of living sufficiently significant to justify careful study.* If the broad unit of work is to make an important contribution to the child's understanding of the world in which he lives, then it must be concerned with significant human activities. Far too many teachers are satisfied with a broad unit of work if the children are "interested" and there are many "activities" involved. Children may be interested in "the zoo," "the circus," "prehistoric animals," or "ancient weapons." Not any of these potential units of work are sufficiently significant to merit careful study over a long period of time. They are not sufficiently concerned with important human activities. Children could experience an interesting time in studying one of these topics but gain little in understanding how people live together. Apparent interest on the part of children, in and of itself, is not a justifiable criterion for the selection of the unit of work.

2. *A broad unit of work should be vital, interesting, and challenging to all of the children.* You may ask, "Isn't it expecting the impossible that all children will be challenged and interested?" It is expecting a great deal that all children will be equally interested and challenged, it is true. But it is not difficult for the children and the teacher to select a broad unit of work and so carry it out that everyone has had a rich worthwhile experience. The teacher or student

teacher has a major responsibility in guiding the choice of the broad unit and in planning with the children as the work progresses. If the choice is intelligently made, and the activities carefully planned, the broad unit of work will be vital, interesting, and challenging to all of the children.

3. *A broad unit of work should harmonize with the developmental level of the children and deal with problems and materials within the comprehension of the group.* Two problems must be faced here. First, the original choice of the unit must be made in the light of what is known of the drives, interests, and capacities of children of the age level involved. For example, we know now that children who are five, six, and seven years of age are living in a "here and now" stage of development. Children of this age must learn almost entirely by direct experience. They have vague notions of time and space. Teachers no longer carry on units of work with six- and seven-year-olds on "Indians," "Eskimos," or "The Dutch." They know that any study of the long ago or far away with children of this age will be dealing with imagination and phantasy.

Modern teachers know, similarly, that children ten and eleven years of age are not yet mature enough to deal directly with the social problems of cultural lag. For example, if the children were studying coal mining, it would be recognized that they are not yet ready to handle with mature comprehension the intricate problems involved in wage disputes, labor legislation, or public versus private ownership of mines. Children of these ages can understand, however, the work that miners do, the equipment that they use, the varieties of coal that are mined, the methods by which the coal is transported, and the many uses of coal.

The second problem in applying this criterion of a desirable broad unit of work has to do with the choice of experiences and materials *after* the unit is chosen and under way. The teacher must assume responsibility for so guiding the choices that children will not be attempting to solve problems which are beyond them or using materials with which they are bound to fail. He must, on the other hand, provide that children are challenged and avoid underestimating their capabilities. This teacher guidance has to take into consideration the wide differences in ability to be found in any normal classroom group.

4. *A broad unit of work should provide rich first-hand experience.* Elementary-school children, ages five to eleven, learn well through direct first-hand experience. The greater part of learning in the early-elementary grades must be direct. These young children obtain clear, accurate impressions only through seeing, touching, smelling, hearing, feeling, and otherwise contacting directly. Children in the later-elementary grades, ages nine, ten, and eleven, whose learning includes emphasis upon the long ago and the far away are, of necessity, learning through vicarious experience. But this vicarious learning must depend upon direct learning. Comparisons must be continually drawn between the far away and the long ago and that which the child has experienced and is experiencing directly. A broad unit must always be concerned with the here and the now. When nine- or ten-year-olds study pioneer life, they learn vicariously about life long ago. But to achieve real comprehension they must compare that way of life with what they are learning at first-hand now.

5. *A broad unit of work should provide a variety of experiences and activities for the classroom group and for individual children.* The nature of the broad unit makes it particularly suitable for caring for individual differences. The wide variety of problems, activities, and materials involved in a desirable broad

unit makes it possible for each child to contribute to the study and to achieve optimum growth through the experience. For example, each child can do some of the research. The child who does not read well uses easy reading material or gets answers through talking to people, observing in the community, or looking at pictures or models. Each child also takes part in the planning, sharing, and evaluation. As each child participates in terms of his abilities, he makes his contributions to a wide variety of group experiences.

6. *A broad unit of work should provide for socialization of the children.* As has been said previously, children need to belong, to be like other people, to share in decision-making, and to become increasingly self-directive. A desirable broad unit of work includes many group experiences which contribute to these basic needs and thereby provide experience with the group process of democratic living. Some activities involve planning, working, sharing, and evaluating by the entire group. Other activities are carried on by smaller groups organized into committees. An example of a socializing undertaking of great value is the culminating activity in which the children invite their parents to a program to share with them much of what has been learned in the study. The extent to which the broad unit of work contributes to socialization depends not so much upon the area of experience or problem of the broad unit as upon the way the work is carried on. The teacher has a major responsibility for meeting this characteristic of a desirable broad unit.

7. *A broad unit of work should involve wide research that can be done by the children.* Modern teachers are concerned that children learn a great deal about this world in which they live. They are even more concerned that children learn the processes and techniques by which accurate answers are obtained, not only in school living but in life outside the school. The broad unit should give children wide experience with research. Some of this research should be done individually and some of it should be done by small committees. Children learn how to investigate, collect, and select data from many sources: books, interviews, magazines, maps, bulletins, reports, encyclopedias, movies, museums, newspapers, radio, and trips to stores, factories, and farms.

8. *A broad unit of work should encourage and stimulate the creative abilities of children.* In the modern school children are given many opportunities to explore different art media and to learn to express their ideas in artistic creations. Children are given appropriate opportunities to work with paints, clay, wood, and other such materials. They are encouraged to create in the field of music and rhythm. They are encouraged, furthermore, to utilize language, both oral and written, in creative self-expression through discussions, reports, interviews, dramatizations, radio scripts, original stories and verse. Both individual and group creative abilities are fostered, that children may continue to grow in their power to express themselves creatively, with imagination and originality.

In the broad unit of work there will be many opportunities to utilize the varied creative abilities of individual children, committee groups, and the class as a whole. Murals, booklets, puppet shows, dramatic presentations, original songs, stories, and poems will all help children in their broad units of work to clarify concepts, to experience group socialization, to develop appreciation of individual differences, and to give outlet to their creative art talents.

9. *The broad unit must be an integral part of the total curriculum plan of the school.* The curriculum of any school must be planned to insure to both children and society the benefits of valuable learnings whose effects are cumu-

lative towards desired goals. The teachers and administrators in a given school or school system are responsible for planning a broad flexible framework for curriculum experiences. Any teacher and group of children, then, will choose only those units of work which harmonize with this curriculum plan. This flexible framework for curriculum experiences must be planned in the light of all that is known about child development and with due consideration of the values of democratic society. It must be directed towards providing experiences by which children come to understand the basic activities in which human beings engage and the major problems which society faces.

The curriculum plan will vary from school to school. As a student teacher you may be working in a school which has planned the curriculum around broad units of work which emphasize the major human activities. These major human activities with which these broad units must be concerned include the following:

- Procuring food, clothing, and shelter
- Transporting and communicating
- Conserving health and natural resources
- Securing an education
- Finding wholesome recreation
- Performing responsibilities of citizenship

In the first grade of this particular school the broad units of work are to be organized about the home and school. The children will be attempting to understand, at their level of development, how the major human activities are carried on in the home and the school. In the second grade the emphasis is upon these human activities in the neighborhood in which the children live, work, and play. In the third grade the broad units of work deal with the problems and human activities of the larger community. The larger community for the city child means the entire city and immediately surrounding area. For the farm child it means the neighboring towns and farms within the area. In the fourth grade the work will contrast the life of the Indians and the pioneers who lived in this place long ago, very simply without machinery, with how people carry on the major human activities here today. In the fifth grade the geographic area is expanded to include the whole of the United States of America, while in the sixth grade the units of work emphasize the interdependence of the world community.

Within these agreements for emphases at each grade level the teacher and the children of a given classroom select broad units of work suited to their drives and interests. Within the broad unit, experiences are organized suitable to the developmental level of the children and to the resources of the community and the school.

PLANNING BROAD UNITS OF WORK

You may begin your student teaching at a time of the school year when the critic teacher and the children are already involved in an on-going broad unit of work. In that case you will want to find out through conferences with the critic teacher the process by which the study was selected and information concerning the plan of work. On the other hand, it is likely that you will be in on the beginning of the broad unit and

it is probable that you will be given the major responsibility for guiding the choice of the study and for carrying out the plan of work.

Selecting the Broad Unit of Work. Who chooses the broad unit of work in the modern elementary school? This question has been argued, debated, and discussed by educators for many years.

Many teachers are of the opinion that if the teaching in the school is really modern, the children will independently decide upon the area or problem for study and that the teacher will take a neutral position and stay out of the deliberations as much as possible. Actually this is a basic misunderstanding and one that is usually held by teachers who have had little or no experience with broad-unit work. Teachers who have had experience with the integrated program know that young children must have a great deal of guidance from the mature adult teacher in deciding upon the important study that is to occupy them for weeks of their school life.

Other teachers are of the opinion that the study should be decided upon in advance. Likewise these teachers believe that the children should go through a series of discussions and other experiences by which they are led to think that they are actually making the choice. Teachers who have had experience with the integrated program know that this procedure is mis-educative. Furthermore, children are most apt to recognize the artificiality of the situation and to lose respect for the broad unit selected, the democratic process, and the leadership of their teacher.

Who chooses the study? The choice should be a coöperative affair with participation by the faculty of the school, the classroom teacher, and the children. Indirectly, too, the parents become involved in the choice. All of these persons participate to the degree that they are concerned and in accordance with their maturity and backgrounds of experience.

Assume, for this discussion, that you are responsible for selecting and carrying on a broad unit under the guidance of the critic teacher in coöperation with the children and other persons concerned. What do you bring to the exploratory discussions in which you will lead the children in considering the various topics and problems from which a broad unit of work will be chosen? In the first place, you must work within the curriculum plan of the school, observing all agreements that have been made as to the areas of emphasis for each grade level. For example, if the curriculum plan for your grade level provides for study of human activities within the entire city at the present time, you would not seriously consider with the children a study of the pioneers who lived long ago on the land which they now occupy. In the second place, you would bring to the exploratory discussions your knowledge of the meaning of integration and of the characteristics of a desirable broad unit of work. The nine characteristics discussed in an earlier section of this chapter, or your modifications of these characteristics, will be useful to you in this

connection. In the third place, you must, of course, consider the implications of these characteristics for the particular group of children whom you are teaching, who are working in a particular school, and living in a community which has unique human and material resources. It is particularly important that the student teacher bring to the exploratory discussions a knowledge of the previous school experience of the children including their experience, or lack of it, with broad-unit procedures.

Many schools are now experimenting with broad-unit teaching but have not as yet arrived at any curriculum plan which provides the teacher with a guiding scope and sequence. If this situation exists in the school in which you are doing your student teaching, then you will have to draw upon your knowledge of suitable broad units of work at the various grade levels and solicit help from the teachers and supervisors who are interested in you and the children with whom you are working.

A suggested list, by name, of broad units of work that might be suitable at various age levels is offered for your consideration. This list is not intended to circumscribe the cooperative selection of the broad unit of work; rather it is presented to stimulate your thinking about the potential areas of choice. The titles in this list are not necessarily worded in the language of the children. It should be recognized, of course, that the exact name given to a broad unit is a relatively minor matter. The overlapping of ages in the lists is deliberate since the eight-year-olds in one classroom might be much like the nines in another.

For Children Six, Seven, and Eight Years of Age

(Usually in grades one and two)

Living in Our Homes

Finding Out about Our School

How People Work and Play on the Farm

Animals Which Help Us

How Do We Get Our Milk?

How Do We Get Our Bread?

Workers Who Help Us in Our Neighborhood

Houses in Our Neighborhood and the Workers Who Build Them

Workers Who Protect Us in Our Neighborhood

Stores in Our Neighborhood

Passenger Trains, Street Cars, and Buses

Chickens and the Poultry Farm

The Clothes We Wear

For Children Eight, Nine, and Ten Years of Age

(Usually in grades three and four)

What Freight Trains and Big Trucks Carry and Where They Go

Airplanes and the Airport

Meat and Meat Packing

Wholesale Houses and Big Stores in Our City

How Our Small Town Helps the Large City, and How the City Helps Us

How Our City Started and Became What It Is Today

The Changes That the Coming of Winter Makes in Our Living
 How Does Our Community Provide for Health and Safety?
 How Does Our River (Lake, Harbor) Help Us Get Food, Clothing, and Shelter?
 Communication in Our City
 Corn and Corn Products
 Wheat and Wheat Products
 Cotton and Cotton Products
 Buildings in Our City and the Materials Used to Build Them
 Indians of Our State, Now and Long Ago
 Living in a Mexican Village
 Pioneers in Our Community

For Children Ten, Eleven, and Twelve Years of Age
 (Usually in grades five and six)

Wealth under the Soil in the United States
 Our Forests, Lumbering, and the Uses of Wood
 Our Food Needs and How They Are Met
 Our Housing Needs and How We Have Learned to Care for Them
 How is Coal Mined and Transported?
 Modern Methods of Transportation
 How Has Machinery Changed Farming?
 How Early American People Lived, Worked, and Built a Nation
 Our Ancestors and the Countries from Which They Came
 A South American Neighbor—Brazil
 Our Neighbor to the North—Canada
 Earth Resources and Our Needs
 How the United States Helps Feed the World
 How Our Community Depends Upon the Whole World for Clothing
 Conservation of Natural Resources in Our Country

The part the children play in choosing the study must vary with the age level and maturity of the children, the amount of experience the children and their teacher have had with the integrated program, and the degree of flexibility of the curriculum plan of the school. Children at the first-grade level who have had no experience with broad-unit work will need more guidance from the teacher. Their limited backgrounds in such matters of selection mean that, while they will participate in terms of their maturity and their previous personal experiences with planning, their growth in such social planning is dependent upon the teacher's effectiveness in discovering their common needs and interests and in so coördinating the thinking of the group that the children's intelligent participation is evoked. Sixth-grade children have reached a stage of social development in which they have a concern for group goals that is not possible for the relatively egocentric first graders. This social maturity, coupled with previous experience in broad-unit work, enables these older children to participate more fully—in fact to play a major rôle—in selecting the problem or area for study.

When student teachers think of children taking part in selecting a broad unit for study, they may think solely of the discussion groups in which children express their opinions. This is really only a small phase of the contribution that children can make. You will seldom get at the real purposes and interests of children merely through the discussion that revolves about a consideration of what might be studied. The interests that children voice are clues to the teacher and often little more. This is especially true of the younger children in the early-elementary grades, but is true to lesser extent of children in the later-elementary grades. The discussion of interests and purposes must be accompanied over a period of time, several days at a minimum, with experiences by which the teacher and the children determine more reliably whether a proposed study will really challenge the group. These exploratory experiences can include talking with parents about the proposed study, reading books, looking at pictures, viewing exhibits and movies, taking walking trips, and so on. Continued discussion and sharing in relation to these experiences will help the group determine the suitability of the proposed study. The teacher must interpret the actions of the children as well as what they say. For example, a child may voice an interest in finding out more about electricity and give evidence that the interest is genuine by bringing to school books on electricity from home or the neighborhood library. Another child may say he wants to study about pioneers but shows no interest in the exploratory activities in connection with the proposed pioneer study. Nor does he initiate any other activities. Real interest can also be indicated by children through the kinds of questions that they continue to ask day after day.

As children gain experience with the integrated program, an important aspect of the selection of a new study is the consideration of criteria for choosing a broad unit. These criteria are established by the children and the teacher working together. A group might establish criteria including such considerations as these:

Have we had this study before?

Is this study worthwhile?

Are there important problems to consider?

Is it interesting enough for us to work on for quite a long time?

Have we time enough to do this study well?

Is it too hard or too easy for us?

Can we get plenty of information?

Are there some trips that we can take?

Are there movies that will help us?

Are there some people who could speak to us?

Are there books on the subject that we can read?

Will the study be interesting to all of us?

Is any other class in the school doing this study?

During the exploratory period these criteria would be used continually to appraise the potential values of the studies proposed. The above criteria are written as upper-grade children might ask the questions. The questions that younger children in the early-elementary grades would ask would be even more childlike and the list not nearly so long.

While various proposed topics and problems are being considered by the class in the light of the established criteria, members of the faculty should be invited to express their opinions as to the value of the proposed units and to make suggestions as to some of the activities that might be carried on. In some schools there is a general understanding that proposed broad units of work must meet the approval of the faculty before the classroom group proceeds with the study. The results of the faculty action will be reported to the children before the final selection of the study is made.

When the number of suggested studies has been narrowed down to a few topics or problems from which the final selection is to be made, the choice is sometimes made by common consent. In such a case it is obvious that a given study has the approval of a large majority of the group. However, it is sometimes necessary for the children to vote. Seldom will any group reach a unanimous agreement. When it becomes clear that a large majority of the children are in favor of a given study, all of the children should be helped to accept the decision and to go to work with a spirit of cooperation to make a success of the broad-unit experience. Children, who as a minority favored a different study from the one selected, should be helped particularly to explore their potential contributions to the broad unit of work. The voting, if necessary, should take place only after an adequate exploratory period during which purposes have been examined, interests tested, and the potential activities of the various studies have been thoroughly considered.

In this process of selecting broad units of work it is very important that children know the limitations within which they are working. Children should not be seriously deliberating in reference to a course of action when the decision has already been made by the teacher, or the principal, or by a curriculum committee. If the teacher, for example, has decided in advance for one reason or another what the study is to be, it is nothing less than immoral to have the children go through a process by which they are led to think that they are making the decision. There are situations in which it seems quite justifiable for the topic or problem of the broad unit to have been selected in advance. In this case the children should be told at the outset what the study is to be and the exploratory period becomes one of stimulating rather than identifying major interests.

In this case, also, the teacher will be able to give children opportunities, within the honestly recognized limitations, of participating in deciding

the direction in which the broad unit will move and thus the children will really have had a significant share in the selection of the content of the unit itself. If the specific activities involved in the study have been determined in advance, so that the group has few if any important decisions to make in the development of the undertaking, then this total experience can not justifiably be called a broad unit of work. Nor should "broad unit" be used to describe such work.

The teacher, or the student teacher, must play a major rôle in the selection of the broad unit of work. He provides the setting in which the exploratory thinking and sharing of ideas takes place. He guides children in the development of criteria for the selection of the study. He arranges and guides the exploratory experiences. He provides the setting for adequate communication among group members. He interprets the actions of the children in attempting to get at real purposes and interests, noting facial expressions and gestures. He observes clues to children's meanings; he tries genuinely to fathom out children's intentions. He keeps children informed of limitations. He knows when a topic should be eliminated from final choices. He directs all those activities and arrangements which are necessary in facilitating and arriving at a satisfactory selection of a study, but which the children themselves are not yet mature enough to do. He coordinates the thinking and action of the group for orderly progression toward final selection. He demonstrates and promotes the use of democratic procedures throughout the entire process of selecting the broad unit of work.

Such a teacher recognizes that in a truly modern school children will have a real part in making decisions in regard to things that concern them. He knows, too, that as children progress through a good school they become increasingly capable of making intelligent decisions about their school living.

Organizing Purposes and Procedures. After the study has been selected, definite purposes must be organized and procedures agreed upon. As a student teacher responsible for guiding the work, you will, of course, have already begun the process of identifying the purposes that you hope will be achieved in the study. It is here suggested that the desired outcomes be listed under the four headings: *understandings of and generalizations from content information; attitudes and appreciations; abilities and skills; and individual and group behavior.* You should, at this time in your planning, write out under these headings the desired outcomes of the study in as much detail as will be useful to you and your critic teacher in providing guidance for the children.

After you have carefully thought through and recorded the purposes of the study as you see them, you are ready to help the children go through a similar process. It should be remembered that the purposes of

the mature teacher will go beyond those of the children. Children, for example, do not have the maturity or background of experience with which to understand the needs of democratic society with insight equal to that of the teacher. If a group of ten-year-olds are studying farm machinery in connection with a broad unit of work on "Food in the United States," they will have many questions to ask and to answer but they will not see the purposes of the experience in the comprehensive way that the teacher should. Children, at this developmental level, will be capable of understanding in an elementary way how farm machines operate, how living on farms is different because of the machines, how an increase in the production of food is caused by the machines, and how the use of machines results in the reduction of the number of laborers needed on the farms. Most children of this age, however, will not be mature enough to understand the problems of cultural lag that accompany the use of modern farm machinery: unemployment, overproduction, price control, and so on. One major purpose of the teacher in this study is that children come to know about the machines and the material differences that they make in the way people live. The teacher recognizes that in this way children will be building a background of experience and understanding for attacking the problems of cultural lag at a later stage in their development. The children will probably not be aware of, or understand, this teacher purpose.

Children reveal purposes through the questions they ask and the plans they make for getting the answers. After there has been sufficient background developed through the exploratory experiences, original questions can be re-examined and restated and more questions asked. This may be done through a series of whole-group discussions that extend over a period of several or more days. If you are leading these discussions, you should record the questions asked, first on the chalkboard and later, more permanently, on large chart paper. These questions should be in the language of the children and in question form rather than written as statements. Since out of these discussions will come the plan of work for much of the broad unit, it is particularly important that the list of questions not be hurriedly assembled. In fact, the lists should be kept open as the study progresses because important questions that were not foreseen at the beginning will arise.

The kinds and number of questions will vary with the age and maturity of the children. Since first graders cannot project their thinking far into the future, they cannot visualize an entire broad-unit experience. These young children must be guided to ask their questions about one phase of the work at a time. If a first-grade group is having experiences in connection with "Workers Who Help Us in Our School," it will be necessary to encourage them to select one worker and to ask questions about him.

They might first decide to find out about the custodian and ask such questions as these:

Does Mr. Jones run our school?

When does Mr. Jones clean our room?

When does Mr. Jones come to work in the morning?

How does Mr. Jones make a fire in the furnace?

Where does Mr. Jones get the coal?

How can we help Mr. Jones?

The children and the teacher would then go about answering these questions through visiting Mr. Jones in the furnace room, having him visit in their classroom, discussing what has been learned, recording the experiences on charts, painting, dramatizing, and so on. After the children have learned about their custodian, they might ask questions about the school nurse and go through similar processes in answering these questions. In like manner the group might learn about the school principal, the physician, the patrol boys, other teachers, the cook in the lunch room, and the truck driver who brings the school supplies. Such a broad unit of work could well extend over a period of six weeks or more but the continuity must be furnished by the teacher.

On the other hand the sixth-graders are capable of considerable insight into the entire range of experiences which their study might include. They can ask questions at the beginning of the study which, for the most part, will furnish the guides for organizing the whole broad unit.

Suppose that a group of later-elementary school children are beginning work on a study of "How Our Community Depends Upon the Whole World for Food, Shelter, and Clothing." Over a period of several days the children might suggest as many as sixty or seventy questions to be answered during the study. Since this topic is very broad—as most studies are and should be in the later-elementary grades—it would not be sensible for the group to work on all aspects of the study at the same time. Suppose further, then, that this group decided to answer first the questions related to clothing. The questions on clothing would be drawn from the original list and organized about the headings of "Cotton," "Wool," "Silk," "Linen," "Fur," and "Nylon." The questions relating to cotton might be as follows:

Where in the world is cotton grown?

What type of climate is needed for growing cotton?

What kind of soil does cotton need?

Would cotton grow here?

Are there different kinds of cotton?

What kind of machinery is used in cotton farming?

Is machinery causing changes in the way cotton is grown?

Where is the cotton sent that is grown in the United States?

Do we import any cotton?
Do we import any cotton clothing that is made in other countries?
How is cotton made into clothes?
What did early people use to make cloth?
How is cotton clothing dyed?
How is dye made?
Is the dye made in the United States?
How were dyes made in olden times?

Similar lists of questions would be drawn together for each of the other clothing materials.

Children in the early-elementary grades do much of their research work as a whole group with direct help and guidance from the teacher. The older children in the later-elementary grades organize into committees for more independent group research, still under the guidance of the teacher. For example, the study discussed above might be organized in such a way that six committees would be at work, each searching for answers to the questions on one type of clothing material. One committee would be working on "Cotton," another on "Wool," and so on.

Inexperienced teachers, as well as teachers new to the integrated program, are apt to make two serious mistakes in organizing the purposes and procedures of the broad unit. One has been mentioned above—that of trying to tackle too much at one time. When the scope of the work is not delimited sufficiently, opportunity for children to gain insight into important relationships is sacrificed and they get a mere smattering of knowledge within a broad framework. Hence unity is not achieved and the total experience is not integrative. Furthermore, when children attempt too much, they of necessity do a poor job of research, gathering unrelated bits of information, rather than doing thorough work on an undertaking of reasonable scope.

The teacher finds that when the study is not delimited sufficiently he is hard pressed to keep up with the supervisory aspects of his responsibility and be in a position to give real assistance with the research. Again referring to the study above, one would have an illustration of this mistake if the children began a study of "Food," "Clothing," and "Shelter," all at the same time, with two committees working on each of these three major problems within the study. It would be a much more sensible procedure for the entire group to work first on "Clothing"; then the entire group might work on "Food"; and finally, all could study "Shelter."

The second serious mistake, frequently made in organizing the broad unit, has to do with the purposes of committee work. In the early stages of the study the major committees should be research groups. They will be primarily concerned with using all possible sources of information to get answers to questions. They should be functionally organized and so

guided by the teacher that the children will be learning coöperative research techniques. Sometimes teachers who are worried lest the children not continue to be interested in the study rush into plans for "activities" or "projects" involving painting murals, making large maps, building models, or developing scrapbooks. Thus, in the early phases of the study, an insecure teacher may organize a mural committee, a map committee, a model committee, and a scrapbook committee rather than research committees. In this way the answering of questions assumes a secondary rôle and the broad unit is seriously mis-directed in emphasis at the very outset. Organizing for assimilating and sharing activities—murals, plays, radio programs, scrapbooks, pageants—should develop from research work which is already well under way.

Organizing committees for socially useful work which exists in connection with the study should wait until the entire group has gained a great deal of information. For instance, children working with a broad unit on "How We Get Our Food" might have a chance to plant and care for a vegetable garden in which food is to be grown to supplement free school lunches. They might assist in the school cafeteria or, in schools without a cafeteria, help inaugurate a hot-lunch program. Delegation and acceptance of responsibility for specific jobs in such socially useful work should not come before considerable research has been done. It is, of course, true that more information is often needed after the assimilating and sharing activity or the socially useful work gets under way.

Children in the elementary school, at each age and grade level, are learning coöperative group work. They begin the process of learning committee work in the kindergarten and they are still learning it when they are in the sixth grade. Even adults in our democracy have much to learn about working coöperatively. As a student teacher you must expect that the group work will not always go smoothly. You will need to give supervision and guidance, to provide frequent discussion of the elements of good committee work, and to arrange for periodic evaluation by the whole group of the effectiveness of the work of the various committees. You will want to provide for frequent reports of progress by the committees to the whole group. Through these progress reports and your supervision of the committees at work, waste of time through misdirected effort can be largely avoided.

When children fail in their committee work, it is usually because they have little respect for the job they have undertaken or because they do not have a clear understanding of their group functions and responsibilities. Each of these difficulties can be avoided by careful planning and re-planning. You must sit down frequently with each small group, guiding them in planning their work, directing them to sources of information, and helping them "to become a group."

Getting Information. After the purposes of the study have been clearly organized and the plan of work agreed upon, the group is ready for the serious work of investigating and collecting data. In the subject-centered program with its basic reliance upon a particular textbook for each subject, much of the research is already done and the major job remaining for the children is one of understanding, clarifying, and memorizing the facts already assembled. Such limitations present a real challenge to forward-looking teachers who seek to provide a rich program of education. The broad-unit procedure of the integrated program is, of course, greatly different. Rather than depending upon a few books for answers to questions, the children are helped and encouraged to use a wide range of sources. Developing skill in research techniques, knowing how to get needed information, is recognized as a major goal of the modern elementary school. Only through many functional experiences with investigating and collecting data can children learn to be sensitive to, and critical of, sources of information.

Sources of information potentially available to elementary-school children and teachers can be summarized under four headings:

1. *The community:* factories, stores, homes, parks, museums, farms, sale barns, wholesale houses, railroad stations, airports, buildings, building projects, post office, fire house, art gallery, dairy, hatchery, road repair projects, and so on.
2. *People:* interviews, conferences, informal lectures, conversations, demonstrations.
3. *Audio-visual materials:* motion pictures, filmstrips, glass slides, still pictures, photographs, recordings, radio programs, globes, maps, graphs, samples, specimens, models.
4. *Reading materials:* books, magazines, newspapers, bulletins, reports, charts, posters, encyclopedias.

As a student teacher you will have responsibility for guiding and directing the collection of data. You will want to help children find information by making them aware of possible sources and by assisting them in interpreting the materials. The modern teacher not only guides but he takes part directly in the process of getting answers as well, using his mature background of experience and knowledge of sources. To guide adequately the investigation and collection of data, you also will need to be studying and learning as the study goes forward.

When children go about the job of searching for information, they usually find materials at various levels of reading difficulty. Children should be learning to select realistically source materials that they can handle. The teacher has a responsibility, however, for seeing that children are not frustrated by struggling with unsuitable material. At times, he might read a difficult book aloud to the entire group or, after reading

the book himself, give a digest of pertinent information to the children concerned. At other times, he will be able to provide suitable books that have the information the children are seeking. The teacher has a continuing responsibility to provide relatively easy materials for the less mature readers.

As the study progresses, information is obtained by the entire group working together, by committees, and by individual children. Individual children bring information and materials of all types from home, report observations in the community, and do independent research in the neighborhood library. The entire group listens to a talk, sees a moving picture, listens to radio programs, studies a series of still pictures, takes a trip, or listens to the reading of a particularly useful book. A committee might use any or all of the above research procedures.

The teacher must have a large part in arranging the whole-group research experiences. The taking of trips into the community, for example, requires careful planning. Before a field trip is finally decided upon, the group must have clear and definite research purposes for the undertaking. Usually, the teacher should first take the proposed trip himself to investigate the potentialities of the experience for the children. Only in this way can he know whether the trip under consideration promises to be worth the time and energy to be expended on it. Likewise the teacher should see a moving picture before it is shown to the children. If it is to be used in connection with the study, it must meet a definite need of the group; it must contribute to the answering of important questions. Here again the teacher must make the decision; he must decide the extent to which the particular movie in question is vital to the study. It should be mentioned that, at times, children can help with these exploratory ventures. If the teacher can arrange transportation, sometimes it is quite desirable for a committee of children to accompany him in investigating the possibilities of a proposed trip. Likewise, a committee of children might preview the movie after school hours or at a special showing during the noon hour.

Children need help from the teacher in recording and organizing the information which they collect. When children are six, seven, or eight years of age, their ability to get information far exceeds their skill in recording it. The teacher must help fill the gap. In the early-elementary grades the teacher must facilitate the recording by arranging for the children to dictate to him. He can prepare experience charts from the group dictation which record the data that the children have gathered in answer to their questions. The seven-year-olds, for example, may have listened as a visitor explained to them in a simple way what happens to the gasoline that is put into an automobile. After this information is discussed and assimilated, it can then be recorded by the teacher from

group dictation. A similar process may follow a trip, the reading of a book, the seeing of a moving picture.

In the later-elementary grades, children should be doing much of the recording themselves. They need help, however, in learning to take notes, to outline, and to organize and write reports. When the children do not get proper help and guidance, they are tempted merely to copy from their reference books long passages of material that is only partially assimilated. Some of the recording by these older children should still be done through group dictation. This is not only a satisfying experience for the children but through this technique they are helped to do their independent recording more effectively. The teacher must remember that even at this level—ages nine, ten, and eleven—the child's ability to do research is normally far ahead of his skill in recording. After the teacher has written on the chalkboard the report or other organization of data that a committee or whole group has dictated to him, the children concerned may make individual copies of the results of their research.

Using Skills and Subject Matter. In broad-unit work, skills and subject matter are thought of as the tools and materials needed to carry on the study. Children use a wide range of reading materials to get information that is needed to answer questions and solve problems. Through such purposeful, functional experience children improve their skill in getting meanings from the printed page in reading. Children take notes, compose reports, write letters, make signs and labels, and record experiences: all activities calling for skill in written expression. To communicate effectively through written expression children need continuously to improve their spelling, English usage, and handwriting. Likewise, oral expression is an indispensable tool in carrying on the activities of the broad-unit study involving planning, research, sharing, reporting, and evaluating. The effectiveness with which the group uses oral communication determines largely the success of the study.

Mathematical skill and knowledge are used when they can contribute to the study. The sensitive teacher is aware of the rich mathematical experiences potentially involved in any broad unit of work, and recognizes further how much more the children can gain from the total experience if these potentials are realized. Geographical and historical research is carried on when information and understandings from these subject areas are vital to the study.

Thus the student teacher can see that one does not ask, "How can I get arithmetic into my unit?" or "How much spelling work will this unit provide?" Rather, the questions the teacher must ask are "What improvements in the common skills are needed if we are to succeed with this study?" and "What can the subject areas contribute in the way of materials essential to our study?"

The diagram that follows is an attempt to show graphically the place of skills and subject matter in the broad-unit experience. The long arrows for each of the skills and subject areas indicate their service relationship, their contributions to the total experience. Each child brings to bear all of his skill and all of his knowledge that are pertinent to, and useful in, the study. The small arrows indicate that the child improves his skills and gains knowledge, functionally organized for further use, in the subject areas through the broad-unit experience.



There is a great deal of evidence to support the idea that children do make real gains in the skills and subject-matter areas through the broad integrated experience. It must be recognized, however, that the primary purpose of any broad unit of work is not to improve skills and accumulate subject-matter knowledge. The tools and materials with which one builds must always occupy a supporting position. These tools and materials are means by which one works toward larger purposes. This is not to infer, of course, that skills and subject matter are not important.

On the contrary, it must be acknowledged that the child who does not learn to use the skills effectively and does not acquire a breadth of information is seriously handicapped in facing the problems of life. Modern teachers believe that children best accomplish these subject-matter and skill goals through the integrated program. The integrated program provides, as you remember, not only for broad-unit experiences but for practice directed toward improving the common skills.

Carrying On Activities. From a comprehensive point of view, everything that is done by the teacher and the children in the development of a broad unit of work comes under the heading of activities. With this interpretation, activities include planning, organizing purposes and procedures, carrying on research, working with data, sharing what has been learned, and evaluating. In this section, however, the discussion of activities will be directed toward those things which the children do with the information that they have gathered through their extensive research.

The purpose of such activities is to help children organize, clarify, understand, and assimilate their data. For example, a group of seven-year-olds in the second grade, studying "Where We Get Our Food," will use many sources of information to find out about the various kinds of food that are sold in the neighborhood grocery store. After they have accumulated considerable information, they may decide to build and operate a grocery store in their classroom. The building of the grocery store and the play experiences that revolve around it are the kinds of activities with which this section is concerned. The major purpose of the building of the grocery store in the classroom is to provide an activity through which children can better understand the total function of this community service, through which they can further organize, clarify, understand, assimilate and make use of the information they have gathered.

Since these activities use information that has been gathered through intensive research, it follows that they can be organized and initiated only after the research is well under way. As has been pointed out previously, if children go to work on murals, construction, scrapbooks, charts, models, and so on, before they have gathered data, the broad unit is seriously mis-directed in emphasis and the research assumes a minor rôle.

After the children and the teacher have collected considerable data through organized research, they are ready to use their information in various activities. Most broad units involve, potentially, activities within each of the interrelated categories discussed below:

Socially useful work. No learning can be more valuable for children than that which culminates directly in the actual improvement of living. Children should be helped and encouraged to contribute to public safety, to community health, to civic beauty, to the protection and conservation of resources and

materials, and so on. Most broad units of work provide children with information, insights, attitudes, and appreciations that can be directed toward socially useful work. Such work can be done at home, in school, in the neighborhood, and in the larger community. Children in the later-elementary grades, who are gaining through broad-unit experiences understandings of people who live in other places, may have opportunity to contribute to the improvement of living outside the immediate community. The following are suggestive of some types of socially useful work that children of elementary-school age can do:

Plan together how each member of the group can contribute to the work of the home.

Accept responsibility for milk distribution in the school.

Plan and carry out plans for cleaning up and beautifying the school grounds.

Make needed furniture for the classroom or the new school library.

Participate daily in the planning, preparation, and serving of a hot lunch.

Plan and organize a safety campaign for all of the children of the school.

Plant and care for trees in the community.

Entertain sick and shut-in people at homes and in hospitals by writing letters, sending scrapbooks, or by going in groups to read or sing.

Plan for the classroom group to help in community campaigns to combat flies, mosquitos, weeds, rats, or mice.

Inaugurate a plan of exchanging letters with the children of another country.

Make up bundles of food, clothing, and other essentials to be sent to the people of countries in distress.

Experimentation. Through experimentation children are testing the accuracy of their information. They have collected data and they want to find out "if it really works that way." Children are taught in the modern elementary school to be critical of sources of information and to verify, to hold tentatively, or to reject data on the basis of the best evidence available. Some of the evidence may be obtained through experimentation. The following are suggestive of some kinds of experimenting that children of elementary-school age with adequate guidance can do profitably:

Make soap, dye, butter, ink, bread, cheese, or ice cream.

Measure a given quantity of liquid in containers of various shapes.

Plant seeds in window boxes, flats, or in a garden plot.

Make a simple fire extinguisher, telephone, or electro-magnet.

Feed animals various diets to test the values of foods.

Use a weed killer on part of the school lawn.

Dig holes in the ground to determine the depth of the top-soil.

Rig up an electric bell.

Explore the getting of meanings through codes, such as semaphore, smoke signals, Morse, and picture-writing.

Make taste tests of various foods.

Test the power of water through harnessing falling water or steam.

Exclude plants from the sun and observe changes.

Test weights of different metals.

Use smoke and balloons to judge wind direction.

Collections and exhibits. Children profit by and enjoy collecting and assembling materials that contribute to the broad unit of work. Activities of

Improvise and create songs.

Make and learn to use simple musical instruments.

Arrange flowers and other objects of beauty in the classroom.

When such activities as those discussed in the categories above are utilized in the broad unit of work, they must be genuinely integral parts of the unit experience. The nature of the particular study on which the children are working at a given time will largely determine the kinds of activities that will be most suitable.

Culminating Experiences. It is not always necessary to have a culminating activity in connection with the broad unit. Usually, however, children profit greatly by sharing with another group their experiences in the study. The sharing may be with children of other classes in the school, with children of another school, or with parents or other interested adults. Through well-planned culminating activities, parents are helped to understand the nature of broad-unit work and to appreciate the quality of the learning experience.

The culminating experience is usually organized around an audience situation such as a program or an open house. It is advisable that the visitors come to the classroom where the children have done the greater part of their work rather than to the auditorium. This is true for three reasons. In the first place, the sharing is more effective with small groups of visitors. In the second place, in the classroom there is much evidence of the children's work—their lists of questions, their murals and paintings, their models, their charts and maps, their creative writing, and their collections and exhibits. In the third place, the children are much more natural and secure in their own school home.

Whatever form the culminating activity takes, it should emphasize the important learnings that have taken place in the total experience. It is possible, when the group strives to present a program which is primarily entertaining, to give a false impression of the nature of broad-unit work. For example, a culminating activity in which the children merely sing songs, dance, and present a brief play might give the impression that the study was mostly play in a trivial sense, and had little to do with gaining important knowledge, understandings, and attitudes. The major emphasis in a good study must be directly upon these important goals. The culminating activity should reflect this emphasis.

In the culminating experience it would seem advisable, in addition to sharing the results of the various activities, to explain to the visitors the problems that the group set out to solve and the questions to which answers were sought. In this way emphasis can be placed properly upon the research aspects of the total experience. Then the activities—experimenting, constructing, dramatizing, and so on—can be shared in

their proper rôle as contributing to the solution of problems and the answering of important questions.

The form that the culminating activity takes will vary with the maturity of the children and the characteristics of the broad unit in question. The following are four examples of culminating experiences:

A group of early-elementary school children might share with their audience by reading aloud their questions and experience stories, show and explain their paintings and murals, and give a brief dramatization of some phase of their work.

A group of eight- or nine-year-olds might share their learnings about cloth with a well-organized series of glass slides made by the children, accompanied by appropriate explanations. They might also tell stories of their experiments with dyes and cloth testing, and conclude their program with a group of choral readings of original poems about cloth and clothing.

A group of ten- or eleven-year-olds might hold an open house in which the visitors could move about the room reading charts and stories, examining books and other source materials, viewing paintings and models, and examining collections. This part of the program could be followed by songs and dances of the culture being studied.

Another older group studying communication might have used a vacant room to organize a school library. In addition to telling about the study, the culminating activity would involve acquainting various groups of children in the school with the facilities of the new library.

The student teacher, in planning the culminating experience that involves an audience situation, must be very conscious of the time element. Programs in which children in the early-elementary grades are sharing their experiences in the study should probably be limited to approximately thirty minutes. For the older children the time might be extended to forty-five minutes. These suggested time limits refer to the length of the program itself. An open house or social period following the program could extend well beyond the times suggested above.

Evaluation. Evaluation in the broad unit is continually directed towards determining the extent to which the purposes of the study are being realized. Evaluative techniques and instruments should be used throughout the study rather than at the conclusion of the work alone. These techniques and instruments might include whole-group discussions, small-group discussions, anecdotal records, conversations, diaries, logs, observations, paper-and-pencil tests, check lists, demonstrations, and exhibits.

The children should be involved in the process of evaluation throughout the study. The children share in determining the purposes of the study and participate in determining the extent to which hoped-for outcomes are achieved. They share, as has been mentioned previously, in setting up criteria for evaluation, in developing instruments and techniques, and in determining results.

Children can participate in this way, however, in appraising only those outcomes whose immediate purposes they understand. The teacher of elementary-school children has purposes that go beyond those of the children, a point that has been thoroughly considered earlier. The teacher, of course, will not attempt to involve children directly in planning procedures for appraising outcomes in relation to these purposes. Evaluation in the broad unit of work, then, goes forward at two levels: first, procedures in which children share directly in setting up criteria, developing instruments and techniques, and determining results and secondly, procedures for which the teacher must assume the complete responsibility with the children participating only indirectly.

INTEGRATIVE EXPERIENCE IN SUBJECT-CENTERED PROGRAMS

Many schools are still organized on the basis of isolated subjects and skills taught in separate brief periods throughout the day. Most elementary schools, however, are moving in the direction of what has been described as the integrated program. During this transitional stage many student teachers will have to work within subject-matter and skill areas. If you accept the limitations of the program of your school as a challenge, you will strive in every way possible to provide integrating experiences for your children. Your work as a student teacher can make definite and real contributions to the progress of the school in moving from its subject-centered organization to the correlated or integrated programs.

Enriching Textbook Instruction. You may, as a student teacher, work with a course of study that is planned around a given textbook for each subject and skill. You may be expected to use these books with the children and to cover the material included. In such a situation your responsibility is to enrich in every way possible the use of these textbooks. Many suggestions from previous pages in this chapter may be modified and adapted in order to improve textbook teaching.

Inevitably you face the problem of individual differences in reading ability in your group. Not all of the children of any typical or normal group at any grade level will be capable of succeeding with the reading of the books of that grade. If a particular book is especially difficult, you may have no intelligent choice but to read to the children. With other books many of the children will be able to read independently so that you may free yourself to work with a small group that needs help.

Children should approach the problem of studying a textbook with definite purposes in mind. There should be discussions prior to reading the book in which the general content is considered and interests stimulated and identified. It is often feasible for the children to set up a list of questions which might be answered in the textbook. If the sixth-graders

are ready to read a section in the geography book on Australia, for example, the actual reading might well be preceded by discussions of what is already known about Australia. The children and the teacher could then make up a list of questions directed towards those things that are important to know about the geography of this country. A list might include questions such as these:

How large is Australia?

Is the climate like ours?

Are there mountains in Australia?

Are there rivers and lakes in Australia?

Do the people look like us?

What kinds of work do Australians do?

Are the cities of Australia like our cities?

What kinds of goods do Australians send to us? What do we ship to them?

This method of work, within the limitations of the textbook, is somewhat an adaptation of the broad-unit approach. When the list of questions has been completed and organized, various committees can be established to be responsible for reading the textbook for answers to specific groups of questions. The children, in this plan, rather than reading to find out what comes next, would actually be searching for answers to questions and would in this sense be doing research. The various committees would record data as they find it and give reports to the whole group in a manner similar to that described previously in broad-unit work. Many of the activities, such as experimentation, collections and exhibits, can be carried on in textbook teaching, especially if the period can be lengthened or a free-choice period is utilized.

Using Supplementary Materials. The above discussion on enriching textbook instruction suggests a procedure in which you, as the student teacher, would be relying on the textbook as the main source of information. Actually, in most schools you would be permitted, and encouraged, to supplement the textbook with other sources of information. The textbook, then, remains an important source of information, but only one of many sources. Working within the limitations of the time available daily for the subject in question, you will be able, in such a situation, to use other reading materials, audio-visual aids, people, and the community. Many modern textbooks include helpful suggestions as to ways of using supplementary materials.

Relating Textbooks to First-hand Experience. A serious limitation of the subject-centered curriculum, with its reliance upon textbooks, is its inevitable emphasis upon vicarious learning. When books are written for use by children in schools all over the country, the material will of necessity be out of the immediate, direct experience of most of the children. The teacher must accept responsibility for doing everything

possible to relate the vicarious learning from the books to what the children know from first-hand experience. There must be continual comparison with our farm, our school, our city, our climate, our factories, our homes, or our clothing, since the child can understand other places and other times only in contrast with what he knows and experiences currently and directly in his own community.

Applying Skills in Child Living. The common skills such as reading, spelling, handwriting, English usage, and computing have no value in themselves. Rather they must be considered as tools by which important things are accomplished. The child who fails to become effective in the functional use of these tools in the elementary school is seriously handicapped as he faces his problems of living. Good schools accept responsibility for helping each child achieve his optimum development in these skills.

The subject-centered program presents some real difficulties to the student teacher who would provide functional skill work. The uniformity of grade standards, the single textbook, the short blocks of time for each of the skills, the isolation of the skills from other phases of the school program, and the treatment of skills as ends in themselves rather than as tools for living are characteristic of the subject-centered program at its worst. However, the student teacher who recognizes these limitations, to the extent that they exist, can accomplish much in the direction of providing for the functional development of skill in the use of these important tools.

As has been pointed out previously, any typical group of children will vary greatly in their effectiveness with the common skills. You will want to provide for these differences by using supplementary experiences and materials, by varying the emphasis and the time spent upon the various skills for individual children, and by arranging for individual and small-group work. It may be possible for you to modify the daily schedule so that you will have larger blocks of time. You can then plan the use of the time in relation to need so that the establishing of normal relationships between the skills will be facilitated.

More important, however, than any of the modifications suggested above is that you make every possible effort to apply the learnings in these common skills to the living of children; that you provide practice in the use of the skills as tools in solving real problems. For example, punctuation, handwriting, and spelling should be related to the writing that children do in their other school and out-of-school work. Part of the time scheduled for these skills might well be spent in writing letters to relatives and friends, writing a report for the geography class, writing an article for the school newspaper, or in other activities in which the children need these skills.

Other examples of this relationship between skills and child living can be drawn from the field of arithmetic. Each child faces innumerable mathematical problems day after day. If his arithmetic is to be functional, he must use his skill in dealing with these real problems. In school the children can have daily experiences with counting classmates present and absent, the number of chairs needed for a small group meeting, the bottles of milk, the number of pieces of paper needed for a given activity, the lunch money, and so on. They can, and should, do such things as weigh themselves periodically and note gains, losses, and variations from norms. They should be helped in their arithmetic period with out-of-school problems. Some of the boys collect money and keep accounts for their newspaper routes; many youngsters have weekly allowances the use of which requires some planning; and most of the children face such problems as how to use a given sum of money to buy presents for members of the family and close friends. The older children should have experience with analyzing the costs of food, clothing, medical and dental services, and other essentials.

It is assumed that in most subject-centered schools you will have definite textbooks in the skills for each grade level. The suggestions above for relating the skills to child living are to guide you in supplementing the textbooks rather than replacing them during your student teaching. Your responsibility in such a situation is to use the books assigned to the grade as functionally as possible, always remembering that learning from books has value only as it becomes organized for use in meeting real problems.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

Modern teachers understand the meaning of integrative experience and have learned ways of providing in school such experience for children. The following criteria are offered to help you judge your own growth in relation to this aspect of teaching.

1. *The Meaning of Integrative Experience:*

In what ways are you growing in your understanding of the meaning of integrative experience? What, in your thinking, are the implications of the process of integration for the curriculum of the school in which you teach? In what ways are the children under your guidance experiencing a school program that provides integrative experiences?

2. *Applying Principles of Broad-unit Work:*

As you now evaluate your understanding of the nine traits or characteristics of a broad unit of work, how has the meaning of these characteristics been broadened and deepened through your experiences in applying them? In what specific ways is your broad unit measuring up to these characteristics? If your unit fails to harmonize with some of these characteristics, what next steps might you take? If you were beginning again, how would you proceed differently?

3. *Planning Broad Units of Work:*

Who participated in the selection of the broad unit on which you are now working? How did each person contribute? To what extent was the organization for research in the unit effective? List the various sources of information that have contributed most effectively to the children's work in collecting data for their study. In what ways have the children improved in their ability to do research? What evidence do you have that the skills and subject matter have been used in a functional manner? How are the various activities carried on by the children helping them to clarify and assimilate their information? To the achievement of what other important purposes are each of these activities contributing?

4. *Integrative Experience in Subject-centered Programs:*

(This section applies only to those student teachers working in subject-centered programs where they are not having an opportunity to work with a broad unit.)

Analyze your work with textbooks by listing all of those things that you have done to provide enrichment of textbook instruction. To what extent have you used supplementary materials? First-hand experiences? In what specific ways have you succeeded in relating the learning of skills to child living? As you work in this type of program, what limitations do you find in helping children achieve integration?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. A basic idea in this chapter is that if elementary schools are to provide truly integrative experiences for children, a major part of the curriculum must be organized about broad units of work. At your stage of professional development, where do you stand on this matter? Do you completely accept this basic idea or do you think that it is subject to some modification?

2. One distinguishing trait of the desirable broad unit of work is that it provides rich first-hand experience for children. To what extent must children of elementary-school age learn by direct experience? What is the rôle of vicarious experience in the education of young children?

3. The suggestion has been made that in organizing the work of the broad unit "activities" should not be started until the research is well under way. What is your experience with broad-unit work in your student teaching telling you about the practicality of this suggestion? What problems does this procedure present?

4. One experienced teacher said, "The tail must not wag the dog; the culminating experience must not dictate the research and the various activities of the broad unit." What suggestions do you have as to ways of working which will confine the culminating experience to its proper rôle?

5. From your first intensive experience with guiding a broad unit, what are you learning about children's attitudes toward this way of working and studying? Do children get satisfaction from broad-unit work? Do they think it is important school work?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1947).

This volume presents an approach to the organization of the elementary school in terms of improving learning situations for children. Chapter IV, "In the Interest of the Nation," is especially recommended to you.

BROWN, Alma J., "Learning Through Socially Useful Work," *Childhood Education* Vol. 23, (February, 1947) pp. 270-273.

This article describes the socially useful work accomplished by one group of children under the guidance of their teacher.

Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Children* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1948).

This entire book is highly recommended. Chapter 2, "The Elementary Schools of American City, Woodland Park, and Patsburg, 1958," draws interesting contrasts between our schools of today and what they might become in a few years.

FOSTER, Josephine C. and HEADLEY, Neith E., *Education in the Kindergarten* (New York, American Book Co., 1948).

Many of the chapters of this book deal with practical considerations in providing integrative experience for kindergarten children. Chapter IX, "Progressing Through the Year," deals with focal interests.

LEE, J. Murray and LEE, Dorris, *The Child and His Curriculum*, 2nd Ed. (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950).

Chapter VII, "The Unit of Work," will be helpful for those of you who are trying to understand more fully the nature of the broad-unit.

National Council for the Social Studies, *Social Education for Young Children: Kindergarten and Primary Grades* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1946).

Here is a little book which the student teacher of younger elementary-school children will find particularly helpful. It represents some of the best of modern thinking in relation to purposes, materials, and procedures in social education.

National Council for the Social Studies, *The Social Studies in the Elementary School, Twelfth Yearbook* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1941).

This excellent yearbook should be very helpful to you. Chapters VIII, IX, and X present complete descriptions of broad units of work at three different grade levels.

REED, Mary M. and WRIGHT, Lulu E., *The Beginnings of the Social Sciences* (New York, Charles E. Scribner's Sons, 1932).

Here is another book of interest primarily to the student teacher working in the early-elementary grades. Chapter III, "The Content of the Social Studies," is quite helpful.

STRATHEIMER, F. B., FORKNER, Hamden L., and MCKIM, M. G., *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947).

For your purposes, Chapter VI, "Developing the Curriculum with Learners," will be most useful.

STREITZ, Ruth, "An Evaluation of Units of Work," *Childhood Education* Vol. 15, (February, 1939) pp. 258-261.

This forceful article will help you clarify your thinking in relation to the characteristics of the desirable broad unit of work.

WESLEY, Edgar B. and ADAMS, Mary A., *Teaching the Social Studies in Elementary Schools* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1946).

You will find two chapters of this book of particular value in connection with providing integrative experiences. They are Chapter V, "Experience as the Basis of Learning," and Chapter XII, "Developing and Experiencing Units."

3. *Planning Broad Units of Work:*

Who participated in the selection of the broad unit on which you are now working? How did each person contribute? To what extent was the organization for research in the unit effective? List the various sources of information that have contributed most effectively to the children's work in collecting data for their study. In what ways have the children improved in their ability to do research? What evidence do you have that the skills and subject matter have been used in a functional manner? How are the various activities carried on by the children helping them to clarify and assimilate their information? To the achievement of what other important purposes are each of these activities contributing?

4. *Integrative Experience in Subject-centered Programs:*

(This section applies only to those student teachers working in subject-centered programs where they are not having an opportunity to work with a broad unit.)

Analyze your work with textbooks by listing all of those things that you have done to provide enrichment of textbook instruction. To what extent have you used supplementary materials? First-hand experiences? In what specific ways have you succeeded in relating the learning of skills to child living? As you work in this type of program, what limitations do you find in helping children achieve integration?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. A basic idea in this chapter is that if elementary schools are to provide truly integrative experiences for children, a major part of the curriculum must be organized about broad units of work. At your stage of professional development, where do you stand on this matter? Do you completely accept this basic idea or do you think that it is subject to some modification?

2. One distinguishing trait of the desirable broad unit of work is that it provides rich first-hand experience for children. To what extent must children of elementary-school age learn by direct experience? What is the rôle of vicarious experience in the education of young children?

3. The suggestion has been made that in organizing the work of the broad unit "activities" should not be started until the research is well under way. What is your experience with broad-unit work in your student teaching telling you about the practicality of this suggestion? What problems does this procedure present?

4. One experienced teacher said, "The tail must not wag the dog; the culminating experience must not dictate the research and the various activities of the broad unit." What suggestions do you have as to ways of working which will confine the culminating experience to its proper rôle?

5. From your first intensive experience with guiding a broad unit, what are you learning about children's attitudes toward this way of working and studying? Do children get satisfaction from broad-unit work? Do they think it is important school work?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1947).

This volume presents an approach to the organization of the elementary school in terms of improving learning situations for children. Chapter IV, "In the Interest of the Nation," is especially recommended to you.

BROWN, Alma J., "Learning Through Socially Useful Work," *Childhood Education* Vol. 23, (February, 1947) pp. 270-273.

This article describes the socially useful work accomplished by one group of children under the guidance of their teacher.

Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Children* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1948).

This entire book is highly recommended. Chapter 2, "The Elementary Schools of American City, Woodland Park, and Patsburg, 1938," draws interesting contrasts between our schools of today and what they might become in a few years.

FOSTER, Josephine C. and HEADLEY, Neith E., *Education in the Kindergarten* (New York, American Book Co., 1948).

Many of the chapters of this book deal with practical considerations in providing integrative experience for kindergarten children. Chapter IX, "Progressing Through the Year," deals with focal interests.

LEE, J. Murray and LEE, Doeris, *The Child and His Curriculum*, 2nd Ed. (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950).

Chapter VII, "The Unit of Work," will be helpful for those of you who are trying to understand more fully the nature of the broad-unit.

National Council for the Social Studies, *Social Education for Young Children: Kindergarten and Primary Grades* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1946).

Here is a little book which the student teacher of younger elementary-school children will find particularly helpful. It represents some of the best of modern thinking in relation to purposes, materials, and procedures in social education.

National Council for the Social Studies, *The Social Studies in the Elementary School, Twelfth Yearbook* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1941).

This excellent yearbook should be very helpful to you. Chapters VIII, IX, and X present complete descriptions of broad units of work at three different grade levels.

REED, Mary M. and WRIGHT, Lulu E., *The Beginnings of the Social Sciences* (New York, Charles E. Scribner's Sons, 1931).

Here is another book of interest primarily to the student teacher working in the early-elementary grades. Chapter III, "The Content of the Social Studies," is quite helpful.

STRATENMEYER, F. B., FORKNER, Hamden L., and McKIM, M. G., *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947).

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STREITZ, Ruth, "An Evaluation of Units of Work," *Childhood Education* Vol. 15, (February, 1939) pp. 258-261.

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WESLEY, Edgar B. and ADAMS, Mary A., *Teaching the Social Studies in Elementary Schools* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1946).

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CHAPTER VI

Developing an Educative Classroom Environment

Scientific progress, in relation to modern elementary-school buildings, is rapidly being made in illumination, ventilation, acoustics, heating, insulation, and color. Scientific research is also pushing steadily ahead in the fields of child development and the social orientation of children. Scientific studies relative to the nature of learning are being reported in increasing numbers. As a result of such progress in research, the modern elementary school is in the process of becoming a different kind of school than was previously provided for the education of children. Teachers, administrators, and to some extent parents, are becoming increasingly aware of the importance of the school and classroom environment in the living and learning of children. As greater attention is given to children's physical, mental, and social-emotional needs, teachers are working to provide the kind of classroom environment that is conducive to the healthful living and functional learning of children.

The modern teacher discerns that the environment in which a child lives is an educative experience in and of itself. With compulsory attendance laws in effect nationally, children are forced to spend many hours each year in the school. Thus the classroom in which the child is placed inevitably has, either positively or negatively, an educative influence upon him.

The modern teacher recognizes that the classroom environment which is created reflects the purposes of the school. If the school curriculum is subject-centered, the classroom will in many ways reflect this emphasis on subject matter. A series of arithmetic problems on the blackboard, assignment sheets with blanks to be filled in with materials from the geography textbook, questions to answer in history may all be in evidence. If, on the other hand, the school curriculum is directed toward the well-rounded development of children, the visitor in the classroom will be able to observe evidences that in this room there are experiences for children that provide for functional learning. Here he may see experience-reading charts, a science table, an attractive library corner, or questions upon which children are doing research in their broad unit of work.

The modern teacher knows that, since environment is so significant in the total development of children both as individuals and as groups, he

must assume the responsibility for the development of a classroom setting that is always attractive to children, that encourages them in their learning, and that is conducive to healthful, happy living and working together.

THE MEANING OF CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT

Environment is a word of multiple meanings in the speaking and writing of teachers. Sometimes this word is used to signify the total cultural setting into which a child is born and within which he lives. Sometimes this same word is used as a synonym for neighborhood or community. Even more specifically, at times *environment* is employed as a word to mean the home conditions within which a child is being reared. In this chapter the word *environment* is used to mean those surroundings, conditions, and influences which directly affect living and learning in the classroom in which you, as a student teacher, are working.

Even in this sense, the expression *classroom environment* is a broad and inclusive term to employ. No classroom in the school is completely isolated or self-contained. Every classroom is dependent in many diverse ways upon the home, the community, the region, and the total cultural pattern itself. Every classroom must utilize the human and material resources which come from somewhere outside the school. Every classroom environment is a reflection of the folkways, beliefs, ideals, and loyalties of the community, of the region, and of the larger national cultural pattern of living. In this sense the classroom environment impinges upon and is actively interrelated with these broader concepts of environment. The alert student teacher recognizes and utilizes the manifold contributions of the out-of-school environment to enrich and make more meaningful the classroom living of boys and girls.

On the other hand, the classroom environment itself becomes an entity—a special kind of “total environment” for many hours of children’s lives. In the minds of children and teachers the classroom becomes the “home base” for school living and thus the classroom itself takes on personality and plays an important rôle in the quality of school living which is afforded children. As a student teacher you will continually have opportunities to help shape the personality of the classroom in which you teach. Through your observation and participation you have already made contributions to the classroom environment in which you work.

As you take over more responsibilities in the room, you will grow in your ability to create with and for children a classroom environment that is, in and of itself, a dynamic force for learning. To achieve the best results, you will need to understand well certain major factors which must

be considered in the creation or development of a classroom environment that is educative.

The Physical Conditions and Surroundings. From one point of view, the classroom environment may be said to include all those physical conditions and surroundings of the room in which children are expected to live and learn. The location, size, shape, and construction of the room itself have direct bearing on the educational opportunities which may be given to children. So also does the kind of equipment which has been placed within the room make a distinct difference in how children learn. And the decoration of the room certainly affects the spirit and attitudes of the children who must spend regularly so much time in school.

The Intellectual Atmosphere. From another point of view, the environment involves the intellectual atmosphere created in the classroom. The intellectual atmosphere which prevails may be said to depend first of all upon the concept of learning which the teacher holds. The intellectual atmosphere is also conditioned by the kinds of learning materials provided, the activities through which learning is fostered, and the general organizational practices that affect the living of children in this particular situation. In general, the intellectual atmosphere as an important aspect of classroom environment includes not only the general spirit of learning that prevails but also the actual practices and devices employed by the teacher to encourage children in their learning.

The Emotional Climate. From yet another viewpoint, the classroom environment includes the emotional climate created within the classroom. All children need affection and security; and the environment created in the classroom either demonstrates or denies these basic emotional needs of children. Moreover, practices that foster good mental hygiene by utilizing the impelling purposes, drives, and needs of children are a major source of evidence for sizing up the emotional climate of a particular classroom. Furthermore, the ways in which emotional blockings of children are eliminated or at least minimized—as well as the ways in which nervous disorganization, rebellion, or over-fatigue among children are anticipated and avoided—directly affect the emotional climate of the environment within which children react and behave. The desirable emotional climate of a room is characterized by good rapport in person-to-person relations between the teacher and the children as they work and play in their school living together.

The Social Living. In the fourth place, the classroom environment includes the social structuring of the life of the children in a given room. Within the social setting there always is some basis for group living. Sometimes it is autocratic; sometimes laissez faire; sometimes democratic. The basic organization for group living makes a distinct difference in the kind of classroom environment that is created.

The social living in the classroom is further affected by the concept of leadership that is in evidence. Whether the leadership is autocratic dictatorship, or benevolent despotism, or democratic guidance greatly affects the living and learning of children in the room. In addition, the social living is affected by the methods created for developing social sensitivity, for fostering good human relations within the group and between individuals. The practices employed for achieving group unity and the means of keeping open the channels of communication for the solution of problems or tensions are also deeply involved in the kind of classroom environment that is provided for boys and girls.

The Integrated Classroom Environment. Thus the alert student teacher will see that "classroom environment" must always remain a relatively inclusive concept. He recognizes that classroom environment includes the physical surroundings and conditions, the intellectual atmosphere, the emotional climate, and the social structuring. Each of these aspects of classroom environment may be looked at individually or discretely, but, in actuality, they blend or merge or fuse in such an integrated way that the concept of classroom environment which the student teacher holds is more than the sum of these parts. In the blending and merging the total classroom environment becomes a dynamic "social whole" that finds its chief meanings for every individual within that environment in terms of his backgrounds of experience, his purposes, and his needs.

The mature student teacher will also remember that at all times the classroom environment is an entity which is dependent or impinges upon other environments such as the home, the community, the region, and the national cultural patterning. The classroom environment is always created in relation to what, in material and human resources, comes into the room from the outside.

Moreover, the alert student teacher bears always in mind that the classroom environment that is a stimulating, constructive force for healthful living and functional learning in the education of children is continuously and constantly changing. This element of change is a challenge to you throughout your student-teaching experience to help develop or maintain a classroom environment that is constructively educative in the lives of the children whom you teach.

THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

Every student teacher works in a physical environment that has both strengths and limitations. Every teacher must work within the limitations of a classroom. The wise teacher learns early in his experience to recognize the potentialities of his classroom for he knows that he can, with thoughtful concern and persistent attention, utilize to the fullest the assets

of the physical surroundings. He knows, too, that, through the utilization of creative thinking, he can at least minimize the limitations and liabilities of the classroom in which he teaches. As a student teacher you can contribute effectively to the classroom environment. Begin with a critical examination of the assets and liabilities of your classroom, and plan, with your critic teacher, to utilize functionally the room and the equipment which you do have.

The Room Itself. From your earlier observing and participating you have already discovered many of the strengths and limitations of your classroom. Throughout your teaching experience you will be faced with the problem of accepting a classroom as it has been constructed. You will not be able to change its location, size, windows, closet space, and the like, but you can do much to make any classroom serve to the best of its potentialities as a positive educative force for children. Throughout your student teaching you will want to continue to explore ways to utilize well the room itself as a healthful place in which to live and learn. In every classroom, the teacher must work to achieve the following:

1. *The functional utilization of space.* In the modern school, where a wider variety of materials than books and paper and pencils are utilized, the wise use of space becomes of great importance. Space is needed for more than just the seating of children. There is need for space in which committee groups can meet; space in which creative activities such as painting, rhythms and folk dancing, and informal dramatics can be successfully carried on; space in which materials of instruction can be stored; and space in which children can carry forward group activities involved in the broad unit.

As you work within the limitations of the space provided in your classroom, you will need to plan with your critic teacher how best to organize the seating of the group, how best to provide adequate space for the creative expression of children. Some space must also be utilized functionally for such centers of interest as a room library, a science corner, bulletin-board materials, and displays of models, exhibits, collections, and the like. You will want to give attention to the storage of materials such as rest mats, tools, sets of books, paper, paints, crayons, and so on in locations that make them readily accessible for children's use.

Attention on the part of the teacher to the allocation of space helps to make the room itself contribute to the growth and development of children. Space thus functionally utilized contributes to physical well-being and comfort, to intellectual motivation and stimulation, to mental health, and to the socialization of the group.

2. *Continuous attention to lighting.* Eyes are precious equipment to the human being. The teacher must do everything possible to protect children's eyes—as well as his own—from glare, strain, and over-fatigue. Perhaps your first step in the protection of children's eyes will be to use a light meter on the tables or desks where children do their reading and writing. You will also be able to teach children to assist in matters of the adjustment of shades and turning on and off of artificial lighting according to the needs of the day. You will be able to spot the children who, because of visual defects, need to be

seated where they can see materials placed on chalkboards clearly and easily. You can make sure that shades are so adjusted that there is no glare on the chalkboards in use. You can so arrange the seating in the room that no one regularly faces directly into strong light from the windows. During sharing, discussion, and other activities for which seating in a circle is desirable, the shades may be suitably adjusted.

Your regular, consistent recognition of the relation of lighting to the work habits and accomplishments of children will guide you in making such adjustments as are necessary for the protection of the vision of every person in the classroom.

3. *Continuous attention to room temperature and ventilation.* Since many schools now have modern heating equipment, the major problems of heat control are no longer directly the responsibility of the teacher. However, the teacher still needs to read the room thermometer to ascertain whether the room temperature is too hot or too cold. At the present time, the best thinking on the subject is that, for the comfort and best working conditions of children, the room temperature should be about sixty-eight degrees. A thermometer placed low enough in the room for children to read gives them an opportunity to share also in keeping track of the room temperature as well as suggesting the need for more or less heat at seat level.

In matters of ventilation, however, the teacher still has a major responsibility. No child works well in a room that is stuffy and malodorous. While, in one's enthusiasm for what he is doing, it is easy to overlook this important matter of ventilation, there are ways to tell that a room needs fresh air. One possible sign is restlessness or fatigue on the part of the children. One test is to walk out of the room momentarily and back in again.

As with lighting, continuous attention to temperature and ventilation is an integral part of your teaching, since they affect directly the behavior of children.

4. *Adequate attention to acoustics.* Noise can be over-stimulating, fatiguing, and distracting to children. It is necessary that children have, periodically, time for quiet work. Although most classrooms still have not had the treatment now available for minimizing undesirable noise, the alert teacher can consciously plan to alleviate some of the acoustical difficulties of his room. Through a study of distracting noises you will be able to see lines of direction for creatively coping with this problem. The seating of children with hearing losses in places where they can best avoid strain due to the acoustics of the room is one concrete thing which you can do. Your planning of time schedules so that outdoor noises, particularly playground noises, will not interfere with group discussions, oral reports, and the like can be arranged. Your own position in the room while leading discussions, giving directions, or reading to the group should be such that the children can all hear well. Voice modulation is one means of overcoming acoustical difficulties. Care in pronunciation and enunciation can be effective. Perhaps it will be wise to discuss the acoustics of the room with the group. Through cooperative planning, the children and you will be able to work out the best hearing facilities as well as the lessening of undesirable noise. Thus the acoustical problems will be reduced to the greatest extent possible.

5. *Attention to cleanliness and orderliness.* No matter how old the classroom in which you teach, cleanliness and orderliness can be maintained. Regular attention to housekeeping chores such as dusting and the cleaning of chalkboards is important. Orderly arrangements of equipment and materials will

also help. You will be able to find effective ways in which the children can assist in maintaining a room that is clean, tidy, and sufficiently orderly to make it a desirable school home.

The Equipment of the Room. The equipment of the room plays a significant rôle in the development of a physical environment that is educative. The equipment is important, however, only to the extent that it furthers the purposes and goals of the school. As you work with equipment, you may well be guided by such suggestions as the following:

1. *Adjust the seating to the needs of the child and the group.* The first consideration in seating children either at tables or desks is the health and comfort of the individual. Do his feet touch the floor? Is the seating adjusted to give him adequate leg room? Is he comfortable when he reads and writes? Does the light come over the correct shoulder for right- and left-handed children? Is he seated where he can see and hear well?

A second consideration is compatibility. Are the children who sit near each other congenial? Is each child able to get along well in his working relations with those near whom he sits? Does the child achieve a sense of security in the room through his placement with others with whom he feels friendly?

A third consideration is intellectual stimulation. Each child should be seated where he will be able both to give and receive intellectual stimulation from members of his peer group. Is he seated where he can sometimes be the leader in thinking, planning, and doing? With a group from whom he too can learn? With a group of such differing talents and abilities that the children learn to respect the potentialities of each other?

A fourth consideration is broadened sociability. Is the child re-seated frequently enough that he learns to know how to adjust to the differing personalities in the group? Does he sit near some boys and some girls? Does he sit with a group including children of differing developmental levels? Is he sometimes seated with a group with whom he is not closely related in his out-of-school living?

2. *Arrange your desk functionally and artistically.* If you are in a student-teaching situation in which you have the use of a desk or table, you will want to arrange it both functionally and artistically. You will want to keep your materials in such an orderly arrangement that you will be able efficiently to get to books, equipment, school forms, and the like. Moreover, you will want to keep your desk free from the unassimilated masses that frequently clutter the teacher's desk, and attractive in that whatever decorations you utilize will add to the appearance of the room as a whole. Since you will not be teaching from your desk, it is preferable that it not be the center of attraction. Rather, it should be located inconspicuously.

3. *Keep bulletin boards and chalkboards attractive and orderly.* Bulletin boards and chalkboards may be very helpful equipment if they are used appropriately—a detriment if used inappropriately. The alert student teacher will see that bulletin board materials are harmoniously balanced in arrangement, securely put up, and low enough or high enough to be easily seen. The materials should be changed frequently enough to reflect the current emphases in children's work and to hold their interest. Crowding too much material on one bulletin board is a common error. Bulletin boards on which materials

are placed precariously, spaced closely, arranged unattractively, and changed infrequently fail of their prime use because children do not even see them.

Chalkboards should be kept clean so that they are not a health hazard and the materials thereon should be so organized that they are not an enigma to children.

4. *Assist in making storage spaces useful to children.* You have already acquainted yourself with the various kinds of storage space available: lockers, coat rooms, file cabinets, cupboards, drawers, shelves, and the like. As you work in the room, you will want to discuss with your critic teacher the ways in which storage spaces may facilitate the learning of children. Are storage spaces readily accessible to children when they need to get materials and supplies? Are they so organized that children can learn to keep their supplies neatly? Are the various kinds of equipment so placed that children can efficiently and safely get them and put them back?

The functional use of storage spaces provides a splendid opportunity for the teacher to guide the children in the use and care of these valuable aids to learning.

5. *Keep book shelves, display tables, exhibit spaces, rest equipment, and work benches in orderly, useable fashion.* Such equipment must be so kept that it can be used efficiently and safely by the children.

Moreover, disorder in such equipment decreases its usability and encourages children in carelessness and slovenly habits. It is especially important that rest equipment be kept clean. Continuous experience in the use and care of room equipment is a useful learning activity for children. Pride in the appearance of the classroom can be built up by encouraging children's participation in and responsibility for the care of equipment within the room.

The Decorations of the Room. Children can grow in their aesthetic appreciations and standards of taste through the attention which the teacher gives to the decoration of the room. Children enjoy coming to a school where there is decoration that is suitable and in good taste. Good taste implies simple attractiveness and harmony. It implies also neither too much and nor too little, since too much makes for a cluttered effect and too little makes for barrenness. Some considerations in the decoration of a classroom are these:

1. *Use colors harmoniously.* All children need and enjoy color in their lives—variety of color, intensity of color, and harmony of color. A drab classroom, devoid of some bright hues, is a cheerless place for children to live. Of course you will want to choose colors in room decorations that harmonize with the backgrounds of the walls and ceiling. You will want to utilize two or three colors in harmonious combinations at a given time, well-placed and well-balanced in the various parts of the room. You will want to use colors that this particular group of children enjoy. In the elementary school, such uses of color within the classroom encourage children in their employment of color in creative expression, aid children in their aesthetic enjoyment of color qualities, and teach children much concerning balance and harmony in their development of good taste.

2. *Display pictures effectively.* Pictures have long been used—and misused—in the decorations of classrooms. Unfortunately, too frequently they have been

hung too high for children to enjoy them, or placed in the classroom where they were incorrectly lighted, or put up in such a manner that they looked awkward and insecure against the wall. Dull monochromes and sepia prints, never changed, have too long dominated schoolroom walls.

The display of a few pictures, well-chosen in terms of the maturation level and present interests of the children, is better than the use of many inconsequential ones. A change of pictures throughout the school year is very desirable. There seems to be no reason for the same picture to hang in the same spot throughout the entire school year. What pictures are displayed should be so placed that children can see them well and so hung that they add to the children's aesthetic enjoyment of looking at them over a reasonable period of time.

3. *Display children's work attractively.* In addition to the pictures more permanently displayed in the room, you will want to utilize also the work of the children: their murals, their individual drawings, their creative writing, their maps, their clay work, woodwork, collections, et cetera. When such children's work is placed on display in the room it should be so attractive and important that it gives encouragement and inspiration both to the individual and to his peer group. Careless arrangement, poor organization, or insensitive choice not only decreases the effectiveness of the influence of such displays but also gives the impression that the material is of so little consequence that it does not merit more careful attention in its exhibition.

4. *Utilize special decorations judiciously.* Throughout the year there are numerous seasonal interests and holidays of moment in the lives of children in the elementary school. Hallowe'en, Thanksgiving Day, Christmas, Valentine Day, kite festivals, bird migrations, circus parades, and the like all make strong appeals to children. Appropriate and well-chosen seasonal and holiday decorations in the classroom are indeed desirable. But this does not mean mechanical patterning in which thirty yellow ducks in rubber boots and carrying umbrellas goose-step along the upper edges of the chalkboard, or ten identical black cats patiently stare out of the classroom windows.

Holiday decorations should be the outgrowth of children's own individual creative efforts. They should be utilized judiciously to maintain a room that is functionally attractive. Children should participate actively in decorating for special holidays. When the holiday is over, the decorations should be promptly taken down.

5. *Provide living things in the environment.* Plants, flowers, goldfish, and the like provide functional learning experiences for children as well as adding to the decoration of the room. Through the inclusion of living things in the classroom not only is the aesthetic enjoyment of children heightened but also their science experiences may be broadened and their participation in assuming responsibilities in the care of the room fostered.

Such living things in the classroom should at all times be well cared for. They should be vigorous and healthy specimens of plant or animal life. Attractive containers made of suitable materials will protect satisfactorily the floors, table tops, or window ledges, and enhance the appearance of the room. The placement of living things in the classroom will largely determine the extent to which they functionally contribute to the learning experiences of children.

6. *Include some beautiful art products.* To heighten children's love of beauty, and to develop children's taste in what is beautiful, the classroom environment should give children experiences with various kinds of art products. Ceramics,

artistic wood products, folk crafts such as basketry and samples of weaving, or cloth prints add to the decoration of the room.

These art products should be chosen *discriminately and should be so displayed that their beauty is fully appreciated*. While they need not necessarily be expensive, teachers should *assiduously avoid the cheap and the tawdry*. The art objects which the teacher brings should either add a touch of beauty to the room or they should not be used at all. Understanding and tact, however, must guide the teacher in his use of objects which children bring or contribute to decorate their classroom.

THE INTELLECTUAL ATMOSPHERE

Taxpayers place great emphasis on the school's responsibility for fostering the intellectual development of the child. In modern elementary schools the intellectual atmosphere is recognized as an obligation and a challenge. The intellectual atmosphere which is created, however, differs from the austere, repressive, disciplinary concept which characterized early American public education.

The modern student teacher will accept responsibility for fostering critical thinking and functional learning. He will see that a desirable classroom environment arouses curiosities, encourages individual initiative, and helps to create some desires and purposes for learning as well as to strengthen those interests and purposes already on-going. He consciously plans ways in which he can create for and with children an intellectual atmosphere that is conducive to children's optimum growth in valuable learnings which are skillfully gauged to the children's levels of maturation and development.

Direct Experiences. In the creation of an educative classroom environment, direct, first-hand experiences play a very important part. Young children learn most readily from experiences which give them sensory impressions. Somewhat older children learn also from direct contacts with the processes, materials and equipment, and operations from which they are able to gain insight, develop concepts, and abstract meanings and generalizations. In the modern elementary classroom, therefore, the teacher uses real experiences from the children's environment to foster learning whenever possible. In mathematics experiences, children learn arithmetical processes by taking inventory of their school supplies, by collecting the money needed for a school trip, or by financing the school newspaper. Children gain scientific understandings through working directly with guinea pigs, magnets, bacteria cultures, and hand-made radio sets. In social studies, exhibits of real objects from far-away places are brought into the classroom to be seen, handled, discussed, and thus understood. Industrial processes become more meaningful as children observe them directly, through trips, and as products are brought back for further study.

The creative student teacher utilizes in the learning process all those direct experiences which are pertinent in fostering greater depth of understanding and greater permanence of useful knowledge.

Vicarious Experiences. As a supplement to the direct and first-hand, vicarious experiences will probably always be necessary in the modern elementary-school program. The teacher seeks out suitable vicarious experiences to extend and enrich children's learnings. Flat pictures, motion pictures, film strips, maps, charts, graphs, recordings, and the like thus become substitutes for direct experience. These are valuable substitutes for and complements of direct experience that aid children in building concepts and achieving some degree of insight into what is being studied. In the creation of a stimulating intellectual atmosphere, the student teacher who is genuinely concerned that children learn will regularly provide the richest vicarious experiences which are available if he but takes the time and energy to locate them and plan how and when best to use them.

Continuing Experiences. Since no learning in any study is ever completely finished, a stimulating intellectual environment in the classroom should provide for continuing, on-going experiences. Things learned in the past take on added meaning with each new experience with them. For instance, if children have previously worked with a broad unit on the farm, new experiences with pictures of farm machinery, news of rural electrification in the neighborhood, or recent direct experiences on the farm will have broader and deeper meanings because of the earlier experiences. Such new experiences are built upon and extend the former learnings.

After children have made some study of their community, each new experience with the community should be so utilized that continuously expanded and enlarged meanings are achieved. Or, an earlier experience with small neighborhood grocery stores would be built upon as children study about large chain stores, wholesale houses, or food-processing plants.

Related Experiences. All learning, whether one realizes it or not, must in some way grow out of experience. All new understandings and interpretations of meanings are grounded in what the individual has previously seen, felt, come to believe, or accepted as true. When new learning situations confront children, they rely on previous experience to orient themselves to the problems involved in the new learning.

In the creation of a desirable intellectual atmosphere within the classroom environment, therefore, the intimate interrelationships of experiences should be both recognized and built upon. The creative teacher sees functional ways, within a single day and over longer periods of time, to relate the children's activities to previous activities in order that they might achieve increasingly more broadening and more mature concepts, deeper and more significant insights, increased power to abstract and gen-

eralize upon their experiences. Above all else, if present thinking is soundly, psychologically related to previous learnings, children will enjoy the thrill of discovering that new ideas, new skills, new appreciations "make sense."

Utilitarian Experiences. Children learn best what is immediately useful to them. They learn most efficiently the number concepts that they need in their daily living. They improve their handwriting when good handwriting makes a difference because somebody else needs to read what they have written. They learn to spell most readily those words they need immediately in their written expression. As the teacher works with children, he must be constantly alert to the needful utilitarian learning situations which confront them. He provides purposeful practice for the mastery of useful skills and abilities. Psychologically, he capitalizes upon needful utilitarian experiences in such ways that learning becomes enjoyable and exhilarating because it is purposeful, practical, and satisfying to the learners.

Aesthetic Experiences. A stimulating intellectual atmosphere in the classroom will be rich in experiences which contribute to children's appreciation of the beautiful. Such aesthetic experiences include music, the fine arts, the dance, dramatics, literature, and the like. In providing for aesthetic experiences, the teacher must recognize two major types: "producer" experiences and "consumer" experiences. The classroom environment must first of all give children creative outlets in various media of aesthetic production. They must have opportunities to sing, to paint or draw, to dance, to appear in informal dramatic productions, and to do creative writing in prose and poetry. On the other hand, children must experience aesthetically as "consumers." They need opportunities to share the art products of their peer group. They need also to have experiences with listening to good music, good stories and poetry, with seeing fine paintings, artistic dramatic productions, and beautiful dancing. In as many art media as are practicable, the modern teacher wants children to experience deeply and feelingly. He will want to provide as carefully weighed a balance of "producer" and "consumer" aesthetic experiences as is feasible when he considers the resources of his particular situation.

Reflective Thinking. Finding new meanings in previous learnings is known as reflective thinking. The teacher works to provide a stimulating intellectual atmosphere for children, utilizing experiences which are direct and vicarious, on-going and related, utilitarian and aesthetic. He does all this so that children will grow in their power to think critically and in their abilities to intellectualize.

In an intellectual atmosphere where democratic critical thinking is highly valued, you, as a student teacher, will be seeking signs of individual and group growth toward this important goal. You will be able to recog-

his racial or religious differences, his mental ability, a child is not fully accepted as he is, he senses that he does not genuinely belong. He is not secure because, instead of feeling the protection of the group in his attempts toward optimum development, he knows or senses rather that he is at all times openly vulnerable—that at any moment his idiosyncrasies can be used disparagingly against him.

The understanding teacher must bear in mind also that security implies adaptability rather than fixity or rigidity. Such a teacher recognizes that children change in their struggles to overcome obstacles. This is normal and desirable. Children can find security in constructive adaptability and in their efforts to overcome obstacles if, in the doing, they sense that their "belongingness" is in no way challenged and if they continue to feel, realistically, that they are equal to the struggle. Otherwise, not only does the child feel rejected; he also feels frustrated.

As you endeavor to give security to the children with whom you work, you may find the following suggestions helpful:

1. Demonstrate genuinely that you enjoy, rather than just tolerate, the children with whom you work.
2. Give to all children equal respect in the development of their personalities.
3. Recognize realistically that security is fundamental in helping a child achieve adequate standards of attainment as set by the school, the child's peer group, or the society in which he lives.
4. Match the educational activities with the maturity and abilities of the group so that tasks which are difficult do not make children feel panicky or seriously disorganized, give up too easily, or suffer guilt feelings for not meeting prescribed standards.
5. *Omit those forms of rivalry that cause insecurities or build up undesirable tensions.*
6. Avoid odious comparisons between the work or behavior of one child and that of another.
7. Protect children realistically from undue feelings of guilt and fears of failure at school by working with them in such ways that their energies are released and peace of mind is facilitated.
8. Give honest praise and reassurance for achievements. Avoid dishonest or insincere commendation or false impressions of improvement.
9. Be patient with children's regressions, and do not expect quick, easy, steady improvements at all times. Study reasons for regressions and measure progress in terms of where the child started.
10. Recognize the behavior signs of insecurity such as extreme anxiety, withdrawal, or aggressive, anti-social behavior which may be indicative of fear, frustration, or guilt. Work to find ways to help the child become more secure in the group rather than merely attempting to "talk away" the insecurity or punishing the child for the aggressive behavior.
11. Plan with children in such democratic ways that every child has the security of knowing that he has an important contribution to make to the various group activities.

12. Remember that the teacher's manner, gestures, facial expressions, and silences may speak more loudly than his words.

The student teacher who is genuinely interested in the well-being of children will develop in the classroom environment a spirit of mutual confidence, rapport, and freedom from unnatural repressions. Such an atmosphere releases children to become increasingly mature. Because they are secure, they seek new experiences and tests of their adaptability and their power. Because they "belong," they dare to explore new activities, to think new thoughts, to live fully and richly in the school environment.

Giving Affection to Children. From birth on, children need affection which is basic to their "belongingness" and their security. The school must face this fact realistically and play its rôle legitimately in providing affection for children. Suggestions which may be helpful on this important aspect of your rôle as a student teacher follow:

1. Since security in his parents' love helps the child to face life, find out as much as you can about the love relationships of each child in his home.
2. Since rejection of children by their parents is not impossible, you need both to understand this fact and to observe, with the aid of the critic teacher, any evidences of such rejection that may be exhibited by children in the room.
3. Since children expect some affection from their teachers, do not be so cold or reserved that they never see that you genuinely like them.
4. Since people show that they like others through their behavior, remember that requests and suggestions rather than authoritarian commands will be more acceptable to the children whom you teach.
5. When children are faced with disconcerting problems, dilemmas, or have had frustrating experiences, your discreet show of affection that is security-giving in its effect may be beneficial.
6. Since children should not be encouraged to remain on infantile, dependent levels in the show of affection, you will want to avoid demonstrative forms of response or endearing terms. These more intimate personal relationships are reserved to the home. The teacher cannot substitute for the parents in love relationships.
7. Since genuine feelings of affection among and between children are characteristic of a desirable emotional climate in the classroom, you will continually want to develop group feelings which include respect and concern for the welfare of others, and sincere evidences of mutual regard. Accept as natural the demonstrations of affection at different developmental levels and help the children to understand these as normal to healthful development.

If children are to grow and develop healthfully, they shall need genuine affection at school—every one of them. Children are very sensitive and very realistic on this matter. They shall all want the teacher to like them; but they will realize that personally some children will be closer to the teacher than others. In such realization, however, they all expect to be

failures need the rehabilitating effects of responsibilities that they can successfully assume.

5. Locate in the child's work the particular habits and deficiencies and skills that seem to be detrimental to his success at school, and guide him in the improvement of these specifics.
6. Shun bribery, coaxing, misrepresentations, and overprotection, which are unrealistic procedures in readjusting the child to the school situation.

You will be able to do yet more to help children in avoiding emotional blockings at school. Along with the establishment of rapport, the creation of an environment of security and affection, and the understanding of children's emotional problems, you can utilize, in your teaching, procedures and techniques that promote good mental health for children. Here are some suggestions of ways to create a more healthful emotional climate in your classroom:

1. Organize time in such a way that over-fatigue, over-stimulation, and tensions are kept to a minimum.
2. Utilize coöperative procedures which release group energies for the common good rather than competitive procedures that may cause tensions, aggressive behavior, or disintegrative feelings of failure.
3. Avoid external rewards such as gold stars, prizes, honor lists, and the like. Such artificial motivations encourage children to face problems of learning unrealistically and, in individual cases, cause children to cheat or lie, to feel constant danger of failure, to be tense or over-stimulated, or to feel inferior.
4. Control your personal prejudices. Teachers should ideally be free from such racial, religious, national, or class prejudices as will affect their relations with children in the public-school situation. Words are not necessary to demonstrate such prejudices; it is the teacher's total behavior on this matter that counts.
5. Make provisions for learning experiences that are neither too easy nor too difficult for every child in the room. Attempts to standardize—through minimum essentials, grade levels of achievement, mass teaching, and so on—the learning of children constitute a mental health hazard.
6. Avoid the use of sarcasm, name-calling, and other hurtful verbal signs of disapproval. Such verbal statements violate the child's integrity as a personality and encourage him to place a low value on his own abilities and accomplishments.
7. Guide children in their development of what they value in such ways that they find security in adaptability.

Whatever you as a student teacher can do to alleviate children's emotional blockings, whatever you can do to avoid causing further emotional problems for children is well worth the time and energy it takes. The dividends from the creation and maintenance of a healthful emotional climate in the classroom will be seen not only in the total behavior of the children but also in the integrative learning achievements and improvements in particular skills and abilities. For you, too, there is com-

as these are interrelated with those of the group. Decisions are reached and plans are made on the basis of reflective thinking and coöperative group action. Free choice is tempered by consideration of what is best for the group as well as for the individual. Problems are solved by exploring, evaluating, and pooling the ideas of the various members of the groups in such ways that a consensus of opinion can be reached. In a democratic social environment the teacher's rôle is that of guide. He is neither a dictator nor an abdicator. He does not regiment; neither does he remove himself from a central rôle as a mature person responsible for the direction of children's living and learning at school. He so works with children that, at their levels of maturity, they participate actively in shaping the policies within which they will live together, the plans which they help to make for new learnings, and the types of evaluations of their growth and progress in all aspects of personal development throughout the school year.

As you work with children in the classroom environment, you will need to give attention to the type of social framework you help to create. In your assumption of responsibilities you will need to consider your actions and those of the children in the light of the kinds of social environment which it is possible to create.

The Rôle of Leadership in the Group Situation. Within the social environment in the classroom the concept of the rôle of leadership on the part both of the teacher and the children makes a difference in the social growth of the group. If the teacher always is the leader, the children get little or no opportunity to grow in their abilities to be leaders. If the same few children always are the leaders, the teacher and the children may be overlooking the potentialities of other children to make the most of their talents and aptitudes for leadership in given situations. If the teacher never or rarely leads the group, children are robbed of learning how to utilize the more mature judgment and the broader experience of a consultant or an expert.

In a truly democratic social framework the teacher and the children together learn to understand how leadership is a shared rôle. Sometimes one, sometimes another takes on the rôle of leader in terms of what the individual has to contribute in the situation at that particular time. Moreover, such a situation for the social growth of all concerned is so created that the group itself learns to respect demonstrated leadership abilities. The democratic group also seeks to develop latent talents in individuals so that everyone, in terms of his particular expertness, grows in his responsibility to the group by assuming leadership functions when his talents are important to the best interests of the action of the group as a whole.

In the creation of such a concept of shared leadership, the teacher plays a significant part in such ways as the following:

1. He creates a permissive atmosphere in which various sides of issues are voiced and considered before any kind of decision is reached.
2. He guides the group in recognizing the talents, abilities, and aptitudes of each child as a member and potential leader of the group.
3. He helps the group members understand the importance of accepting their responsibilities for leadership at appropriate times.
4. He guides the group in evaluating the effectiveness of the leadership which has been assumed.
5. He guards against keeping leadership functions which children can assume; at the same time he directly takes leadership responsibility in those areas of experience where the maturity of the children is not sufficient to warrant their assumption of leadership rôles.
6. He protects minority leaders from unjust oppression by the majority, from suppression of dissent, from repression of ideas.
7. He interprets with the children the undesirability of the grasping of leadership by the few for their own personal gain.
8. He lays a premium on group action that is based on the best utilization of the combined capabilities of the many rather than upon the efficient and superior efforts of the few.

Every day of your teaching will afford significant opportunities for promoting with children the concept of shared leadership. You will regularly be able to guide children toward coöperative action in the delegation of responsibilities and toward more sensitive recognition of the leadership potentialities of every child.

The Development of Social Sensitivity. When you work to create a democratic social situation for and with children, you will do well to give attention to the social sensitivity of individuals and of the group as a whole. Although young children do come to school egocentric, the school must work to help these children grow toward ever-expanding socialization—toward a concern for the welfare of others. When older children form cliques, crushes, gangs, or other forms of closed circles, the school strives to work with these groups in such ways that socialization is encouraged on a broader base than the closed group itself. Such efforts are centered in the guidance which the teacher gives in helping the child—both as an individual and as he is embedded in small groups—to develop as a democratically socially-conscious and socially-sensitive person. The teacher has a responsibility to do what he can to help the rejected child gain status through modifications of his behavior and contributions to the group welfare.

Social sensitivity can be developed. Here are some pertinent suggestions to guide you in working toward this goal:

1. Guide the child to understand personal differences in others and to prize the differences for their value to the various activities of the group.
2. Lead the child to accept as reality in our society differences in race, religion, socio-economic status, speech patterns, and the like.

3. Aid the group in welcoming and orienting new children into the group.
4. Help the group to accept its responsibilities in the school for working harmoniously and effectively with both older and younger children.
5. Help the children to develop such acceptable language patterns that derogatory name-calling, epithets, and stereotypes are recognized as ways of closing the door to good human relationships.
6. Guide the children to avoid petty tattling, malicious tale-bearing, and the unwarranted ascribing of undesirable motives to the behavior of others.
7. Help the children to see that courtesy and good manners are not something artificially "put on" for company, but are the spontaneous natural outgrowths of concern for the happiness and well-being of others in day-to-day human relationships.
8. Encourage the children to find their social satisfactions in helping rather than harming, hurting, or competing in undesirable ways with their peers.
9. Protect every child from such frustrating experiences at school that he must find outlets in aggressive behavior toward others.
10. Demonstrate to the children, through your own respect for them as human personalities, that social sensitivity is a desirable requisite of satisfying living.

Such guidance of children in improving social sensitiveness cannot be allocated to any particular time in the daily schedule. Rather, throughout the various periods of work and play, the teacher makes use of the opportunities that present themselves in specific situations to improve the quality of the social behavior of individuals, small groups, or the group as a whole. Whatever heightens the social sensitivity of the individual or the group makes these children more socially acceptable. Thus more energy is released for constructive attention to the work which is being carried on in the classroom.

The Development of Group Unity. As one teaches, he comes to recognize that physical proximity or the mere fact that a great portion of the day is spent within the four walls of a classroom does not necessarily make for group unity. Group solidarity does not just happen to exist. Group constellations are creatively planned, brought into being, and developed. Group unity in the classroom is an achievement, not an inheritance. It is maintained neither incidentally nor accidentally but rather at the price of vigilance and skillful guidance.

In the classroom where you teach some group structure already exists. In certain instances it will be your chief task to sustain the high caliber of "groupness" already developed. In other situations it may be your opportunity to improve upon the quality of group spirit which currently prevails. Whatever the present situation concerning group unity, you will be a key person in this aspect of the socialization of children.

Throughout the previous pages of this book many suggestions have already been made which will aid you in establishing, maintaining, or

improving group solidarity. Since group spirit results from the process of working and playing together, children may be quite unaware of the present status of the quality of group living in the classroom. They will not consciously recognize group unity as a product. It is, rather, something that they sense, feel, experience, enjoy, or suspect, but rarely intellectualize as a distinct accomplishment.

The following suggestions, some old and some new, are included here to indicate to you ways to proceed constructively in the development of group unity:

1. Plan with children in such ways that they are responsible, as a group, for putting their plans into action.
2. Share leadership in such ways that "group leadership" rather than individual domination results and is valued.
3. Provide such socially useful work experiences that, in the doing, group pride in accomplishment is achieved.
4. Share curriculum experiences with other groups of children and adults in such ways that your group, rather than the individual child, achieves recognition.
5. Guide children in the decoration and care of their classroom so that they, as a group, are proud of their "school home."
6. Utilize trips, experience-reading charts, games, choral reading, and assembly programs in ways that foster group cooperation.
7. Use committee work to extend social group feeling.
8. Plan and use with the children evaluation techniques that help them improve group socialization rather than promote destructive competition.

As you work to achieve a desirable group spirit, you will want to keep in mind that the purpose of such a spirit is not an end in itself. Its purpose is, rather, to help every child to improve his ways of working democratically with others, to learn how to be an effective member of a group, to find satisfaction in group accomplishment, and to discover the values of group action for the common welfare. Seldom will you project activities primarily for the purpose of developing group solidarity. Many school experiences, however, can functionally become opportunities for meaningful socialization if you but make the most of the various experiences which children are having in your classroom.

THE TEACHER AS ENVIRONMENT

In the living and learning of children it is evident that environment plays a significant rôle. Persons constitute an important aspect of that environment. Children are very sensitive to the human elements in their environment. They have keen abilities to detect social distance. They are particularly aware of sincerity and insincerity, consistencies and inconsistencies, fairness and unfairness. Children get their security at school in

large measure from poised, healthful grown-ups and through appropriate relationships with peers.

This all means that the teacher himself, as environment for children, is perhaps the most important consideration in the development of a constructively educative classroom environment. When you become a member of the classroom group as a student teacher, a significant addition is made to the environment of the children.

The Teacher as a Personality. As has been reiterated throughout this chapter, you, as a distinct personality, make a very real difference in the living and learning of children. The contacts which children have with you are beneficial to the extent that your own personality strengths, as you guide them, make you a wholesome influence. As a person in the children's environment, here are some ideas for you to think about:

1. Children prefer teachers who live well-rounded personal adult lives which, indirectly, enrich their contributions to school living.
2. Children enjoy adults who have sufficient emotional and social maturity that they are wholesomely adjusted to adult living.
3. Children prefer to work with adults who know how to manage their own strains and tensions and who understand, to some extent, the emotional reactions which they bring to the classroom.
4. Children work well with adults who have sufficient feelings of security that they are, in their own best ways, dynamic and poised.
5. Children want to work with teachers who like people, who have faith in people.
6. Children recoil from teachers who have compulsions to dominate, or who use any forms of sadistic behavior in the classroom.
7. Children like teachers whose sense of humor adds zest to each day's living together.
8. Children work best with teachers who maintain a well-balanced perspective in which no child's healthful development is sacrificed to the exigencies of standards, subject matter, or school routines.
9. Children appreciate teachers who are intellectually alert, creative, and capable of participating themselves in the activities which they ask individuals and groups to pursue.
10. Children look to their teacher for competent guidance in the solution of classroom problems; they expect their teacher to be able to cope realistically and practically with the problems of group living.

The Teacher as an Expert. At the present time there is considerable confusion as to the rôle of the teacher as an expert. In practice, realistically, this is one influential aspect of being "environment" for children. In a democracy there is a place for expertness if it is used for the good of the group as a whole. The rôle of the expert in the classroom is that of an insightful person who sees his job not only as a subject-matter specialist but also as a "human engineer." In your rôle as expert in children's environment, here are some guides which you will want to think about:

1. The expert starts with the child where he is and thinks of him in terms of what he may become.
2. The expert guides children in making choices that lead to higher qualities of living and in interpreting experiences that lead to higher levels of thinking.
3. The expert so guides children that personal adjustment is encouraged and maladjustments are alleviated.
4. The expert leads children to improved ways of meeting oppositions, obstacles, frustrations.
5. The expert encourages children to prize increasing independence, self-control, adaptability, and "growing up."
6. The expert helps children develop deeper insight into social processes and social needs.
7. The expert has socially useful knowledge to contribute to studies undertaken.
8. The expert is capable of guiding children in the improvement of the skills of learning.
9. The expert makes available many sources of materials that facilitate learning.
10. The expert views his job as that of a service agent: service in guiding experience; service in guiding for integration; service in evaluating development and evidence of growth; service in interpreting and extending knowledge, skills, and appreciations.

The Teacher as Explorer. In the modern elementary school the teacher is no longer merely a pedagogical mechanic who drills on skills, shapes opinion, hammers knowledge into children's heads, or tinkers with human relationships. To help children in the integration of experience, the modern teacher must become intimately acquainted with the local community, its backgrounds and resources; with the children, their backgrounds and capabilities; with various materials of instruction, their values and uses. In other words, the modern teacher must be an explorer. In an experience approach to education, exploration leads the teacher into areas new for him as well as for the children. Here are some suggestions for becoming a teacher-explorer:

1. Accept the rôle, with security, of a learner among learners, a participator in the coöperative process of discovery.
2. Recognize that the joy of discovery is an exhilarating experience for children and that your greater maturity and broader horizons may add to the quality of their explorations and discoveries.
3. Adventure with children into problems which need the combined intelligence of the group to reach satisfying results.
4. View the classroom as a laboratory for coöperative research in various aspects of personal-social living and functional learning.
5. Experiment with the children in new media of creative expression.
6. Create methods and devices that are appropriate to the needs of the children and to the situation at hand rather than rely on fixed methods and patterns.

7. Give up joyously the rôle of being the omniscient and omnipotent, and proceed to learn while you teach.

The Teacher as Artist. In *Art as Experience*, John Dewey says that in any type of experience where each phase flows freely into what ensues, without loss of the identity of the parts in the achievement of the whole, there are aesthetic overtones. Such overtones are achieved in integration and fulfillment, through ordered and psychologically organized movement or progress. In the classroom the teacher can foster this aesthetic quality of experience. In this way the teacher becomes an artist himself.

The following ideas are presented to suggest ways in which you can move from apprenticeship toward artistry in your teaching:

1. See that the activities of a period or a day are so harmonized and move forward with such psychological effectiveness that a rhythm of time and a satisfying sense of fulfillment are achieved by the children.
2. Anticipate and thus avoid those scenes and sessions that mar harmonious working together. If undesirable situations do arise, handle them in such ways that the therapy itself becomes an integrating experience.
3. Avoid mechanistic patterns of teaching that dull the desire for further learning.
4. Guide positively away from rigidities, coercions, submissions, incoherences, or *aimless indulgences* which lead away from unity of experience or cause disintegration.
5. Enhance the personal and social living in the classroom with its own kind of beauty that is felt, sought, and cherished by the children.
6. Blend your personality with that of the group in such ways that mutual respect and desirable modes of working, playing, and learning together are the climax of your teaching and of children's learning.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

As you continue working throughout your student teaching experience to create and maintain a classroom environment that is constructively educative, you will need regularly to take inventory of where you are in such a process. The following evaluative criteria are presented for your occasional reference:

1. *The Physical Environment:*

As you study the suggestions made in this chapter for the creation of a desirable physical environment, in what specific ways have you been able to contribute to the improvement of conditions in your room? List what you consider next steps with which you may now proceed. What also do you see as desirable improvements which will take a longer time to accomplish?

2. *The Intellectual Atmosphere:*

Wherein have you been most successful in creating for the children whom you teach a stimulating intellectual atmosphere? What learning experiences (direct, vicarious, continuing, related, utilitarian, aesthetic, reflective) do you

now need to learn to use more effectively? Why is this the case? What, specifically, do you now see that you can do about these matters?

Recall incidents where you used or might have used continuing and related experiences to good advantage. Reconsider how you actually used potentially functional learning experiences with children.

3. *The Emotional Climate:*

What are your chief strengths at present in guiding individuals and the group toward better emotional adjustments? What help do you need at present from your critic teacher, your college teachers, or books, to give you further insight into how best to aid an individual child or a group of children in growth toward emotional maturity? If there are children with whom you have failed in this respect, how do you interpret this failure? Which children do you think need the help of specialists such as the psychologist, psychiatrist, pediatrician, or speech and hearing therapist? What are your present long-range plans for improving the emotional climate of your classroom?

4. *The Social Framework:*

What evidences are you seeing of improved socialization of individuals and the group with respect to their leadership abilities, their social sensitivity, their contributions to group solidarity? Wherein have you as the teacher contributed most effectively to such socialization? List the problems of socialization which you now need to talk over with your critic teacher and supervisor. What problems of socialization do you hesitate to try to handle alone? What help can you get on these problems?

5. *The Teacher as Environment:*

In general, wherein do you know that you have been a good environmental influence for the children whom you teach? What evidences can you cite that you are learning to be increasingly effective as an expert, explorer, and artist teacher?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. As you recall the elementary-school classrooms of your childhood, what do you remember as particularly desirable characteristics of those classroom environments?

2. "How barren!" "How cluttered!" "How nicely balanced!" were comments made after visiting three classrooms. What would you say are the effects of each of these types of environment on children?

3. The materials in the classroom environment actually make a difference in the ideas that children accept. They contribute directly to children's learning. How can the environment created in the classroom be utilized to help children gain concepts? Get deeper insights?

4. A lecturer recently said, "A child spends approximately a third of his waking hours at school." What are the implications of this statement for the creation of a desirable emotional climate in the classroom?

5. What do you consider the chief distinguishing characteristics of an autocratic, a *laissez faire*, and a democratic social setting in the classroom?

6. When a school-board member asked the new superintendent of schools what he considered the most important single factor in the school environment, the superintendent immediately replied, "The teacher!" How is the

teacher an environmental influence? What do you consider the chief characteristics of a teacher who enriches the environment of children?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

BOSSARD, James H. S., *The Sociology of Child Development* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1948).

While Chapter XX, "School Situations and Child Development," bears directly on the problem of the socialization of children at school, many other chapters will also help you in your guidance of children in their social orientation.

BURNHAM, William H., *The Normal Mind* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1914).

Although this book was first published many years ago, two chapters in it will be of help to you in learning more about developing a constructively educative classroom environment: Chapter VIII entitled "The School Task" and Chapter XV, "Success and Failure as Conditions of Mental Health."

HOCKETT, John A. and JACOBSEN, E. W., *Modern Practices in the Elementary School* (Boston, Ginn and Company, 1943).

Chapter V, "Making the Most of the Environment," presents in readable style practical suggestions for improvement of the classroom environment.

John Dewey Society, *Intercultural Attitudes in the Making, Ninth Yearbook* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1947).

This significant yearbook will broaden your understanding of ways to improve the socialization of a group. For your work in the elementary school, Chapter I, on basic principles in intercultural education, and Chapter III, on what can be done in the early-elementary grades to improve intercultural attitudes, will be very helpful.

National Education Association, *Mental Health in the Classroom*, Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction (Washington, D.C., The Department, 1940).

So many of the short chapters in this book will be valuable to you that the table of contents will be the best guide. Select those that will help you with your concerns as you work with children in the establishment of a desirable emotional climate in the classroom.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Early Childhood Education, Forty-sixth Yearbook*, Part II (Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1947).

In Chapter IX, a good school environment for young children is succinctly discussed.

OLSON, Willard C., *Child Development* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Company, 1949).

This recent volume summarizes well the research in child development that affects the educative environment maintained at school. While the entire volume is significant, the reading of Chapter VIII, "The Human Relations in the Classroom," and Chapter X, "The Affective Life of the Child" will be particularly beneficial to you in your student teaching.

PLANT, James S., *Personality and the Cultural Pattern* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1937).

Chapter XI states pointedly the mental-hygiene approach to the teacher's task in making education a continuity of purposeful experience.

PRESSER, Sidney L., and ROBINSON, Francis P., *Psychology and the New Education* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1944).

"The Hygiene of Work" is presented in Chapter XV of this book. You will find this discussion particularly significant with respect to the physiological and emotional conditions provided in the school environment.

RASEY, Marie, *Toward Maturity* (New York, Hynds, Eldridge and Company, 1948).

You will find that this entire book will stimulate you to think about many ways in which you can guide children as they grow and develop toward emotional-social maturity.

SCHORLING, Raleigh, *Student Teaching* (New York, McGraw-Hill Company, Inc., 1940).

On pages 81 through 85, you will find a check list on the personality of a classroom that will be of value to you in appraising your improvement of your classroom environment.

ZIRBES, Laura, "Modern Settings for Learning," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 5, (March, 1948) pp. 353-57.

Here is a challenging article which discusses practical ways to improve the learning environment for children.

CHAPTER VII

Guiding Children in Self-Discipline

The development of self-disciplined individuals is a major goal of the modern elementary school. Furthermore, not any of the other major goals of the school can be achieved unless the children and their teacher live together in a properly disciplined situation—in an atmosphere that is conducive, in turn, to productive work, healthful play, and relaxing rest. Even if there were no other reason, the teacher must be successful with discipline to gain and hold the respect of the children. He is tried out thoroughly and if he is not equal to the challenge of organizing, guiding, and controlling the group of children, his teaching will be difficult indeed. Healthy, normal children resist authoritarian domination but need and welcome the security of mature, adult guidance.

When student teachers are asked what concerns them most about the job, they invariably answer, "Discipline!" Possibly you have felt the same way. Your early weeks on the job may have confirmed this concern and you are now even more aware that the promotion and maintenance of acceptable behavior is a vital problem in modern elementary schools. You have realized, too, that this concern for desirable discipline is shared by the critic teacher, other teachers in the school, the principal, and parents. You no doubt know that your effectiveness in matters of discipline is an important factor in determining your success with student teaching.

This emphasis upon discipline is, of course, justified. Ineffective social control, the absence of real discipline, is probably the most frequent cause of teaching failure. Good disciplinarians in the modern sense are not born; on the contrary, teachers who live well with children have worked hard to get that way. This chapter is written to help you better understand the meaning of discipline and to make some suggestions which will assist you in promoting and maintaining acceptable social behavior in your classroom.

THE MEANING OF DISCIPLINE

Discipline is another word used by educators that is subject to many and varied interpretations. Traditionally, discipline was identified with teacher domination. The "good" disciplinarian was one who forced his standards of behavior on the group of children to achieve continual quiet,

military order, servile obedience, shallow courtesy, and regimented uniformity of behavior. Modern teachers take a broader view, and are concerned primarily with developing disciplined self-direction in children. Much emphasis is now placed upon freedom for the child to act on his own thinking rather than to conform unthinkingly to inflexible rules of behavior imposed upon him.

To some teachers and laymen, however, the modern approach to discipline has seemed to mean no discipline at all. Freedom has been confused with license and the modern school has been caricatured as an institution in which the children do just as they please with no regard for others. As a student teacher you must be clear and consistent in your thinking about the meaning of discipline, and the rôle of the teacher in guiding children in self-discipline.

A Definition of Discipline. Discipline may be defined as the intelligent, effective coördination of the individual's drives and impulses toward the achievement of his goals. This means that the behavior of an individual may be understood only in relation to the goals toward which he is striving. This definition implies that discipline is not something that is imposed upon the individual but is for the most part an achievement of the individual himself. The person who succeeds in coördinating his drives and impulses in such a way that he works effectively toward achieving his goals should be considered a disciplined person.

Group discipline refers to intelligent, effective coördination of drives and impulses of the members of the group toward the realization of group goals. Such goals are those which cannot be accomplished by one individual but, of necessity, involve coöperative group action.

A goal may be positive or negative; right or wrong; just or unjust. What makes a goal positive, right, or just is a complex matter. Judgments are influenced by such factors as the culture in which the individual lives, the family patterns of behavior, and the values to which the individual gives allegiance. It is conceivable, and in fact not uncommon, that the disciplined person or the disciplined group may be working toward goals that are socially unacceptable. In such a case the effects of their actions upon other persons are not taken responsibly into consideration. An interpretation of discipline for schools in a democracy must be positive in emphasis. Every child must learn to anticipate and accept the consequences of his own behavior if he is to be permitted to live freely. He must learn to consider the total effect, insofar as he can see it, of his actions on all persons who might be involved.

The Primary Source of Discipline. In the out-moded concept of school management, the primary source of discipline was the authority of the teacher. He judged the behavior of the children in terms of his purposes and goals rather than those of the children and meted out rewards and

punishments accordingly. The child had no choice but to conform to the rigid requirements of an inflexible curriculum and the standards of conduct prescribed by the teacher. To the non-conformist went punishment that all too frequently bore no relationship to the unconventional behavior, while to the meek, conforming, docile child went rewards that encouraged him in personally stultifying behavior.

In the modern elementary school the primary source of discipline resides in the nature of the enterprises that are undertaken by the individuals and the groups. In such enterprises all children concerned have not only an opportunity to contribute but also an obligation to accept responsibility for the success of the undertaking. The control of individual actions is affected by the whole enterprise in which the individual is involved and by the plan for its accomplishment. For example, if a committee of children have accepted responsibility for building a pen for a guinea pig which will arrive on Friday, the pen must be ready or the entire situation will be affected negatively. Or, if on a given day a committee of children are responsible for a report to the class on one phase of the broad-unit work, they must be ready with that report or the work of the entire class suffers. Moreover, if the members of the committee have accepted individual responsibilities for parts of the report, then each individual must have done his job. In such a case the child who is not ready with his share of the work, and has no satisfactory explanation for his failure, should know that he has let his classmates down and that his behavior is unacceptable. He must face the fact that the group undertaking is impeded because he has not disciplined himself. If the child's reaction is that the most serious aspect of his failure is the displeasure of the teacher, the source of discipline is the authority of the teacher rather than the demands of the group enterprise.

This interpretation of the rôle of the teacher does not mean that there will not be times when he must use his authority in a direct manner. What is intended is that the number of times that he exerts control in a direct way should be few in contrast to the number of times that the source of the discipline resides in the nature of the group undertaking. Furthermore, when the teacher does use his authority for direct control, he does so in the interests of the group and the success of the on-going enterprise. Such a teacher avoids saying, "You do this because I say so." Rather he says, "Unless you do your part, our work will not be well done." The necessity for direct control by the teacher should diminish, in a good school, as the children grow more mature.

Demands upon the Teacher. This modern concept of discipline demands a great deal from even the experienced teacher. He must understand the children with whom he works and be sensitive to the goals toward which they strive. He must understand that the behavior of the individual child

is influenced by the groups of which he is a member; and that the child's behavior will vary from group to group. The teacher must know, too, that the behavior of children will relate significantly to the stages of development through which they are progressing. At different ages children are ready for, and equal to, different goals. For example, five-year-olds must work for rather immediate goals whereas most eleven-year-olds will be capable of the discipline involved in working toward long-term goals with deferred rewards. Part of the guidance function of the teacher is, of course, to help children think and plan more and more in terms of long-range goals, and thus become increasingly self-disciplined.

The student teacher who recognizes that the primary source of discipline must reside in the nature of the enterprises undertaken will likewise recognize that human motivation is complex. The child's behavior in a single instance is usually prompted by varied motives, of some of which the child himself is not entirely aware. As a student teacher you must do the best you can. Try to understand why children act as they do, be insightful as to their goals, and know that you must guide children sympathetically, even though you are not positive of the reasons for their behavior.

USING A MODERN CONCEPT OF DISCIPLINE

Children of elementary-school age are frequently subjected to control and guidance by a number of adults who hold conflicting ideas as to how children should behave. Within one family a mother, a father, and a grandparent may be in serious disagreement. At school the child may experience the guidance of teachers who value widely differing patterns of child behavior.

Children are amazingly adaptable. However, many of them are influenced by homes, schools, and churches where it is literally impossible for them to reconcile the conflicting ideas of the adults who exert authority over them. Children, then, are often genuinely confused as to the behavior expected of them in various situations. Teachers have three interrelated responsibilities in this connection. First, they must continue to study the individual children with whom they are working. Second, they must cooperate with the home and with other teachers in attempting to narrow the gaps between the ideas of the various adults who work with the children. Third, they must continuously avail themselves of the new literature of child development in order to increase their abilities in educative child guidance.

Discipline and Basic Needs. All behavior is goal-seeking; every act of the child is directed in some way toward the satisfaction of his basic needs. Obviously the child strives only toward those goals which contribute to the meeting of his basic needs. As has been emphasized, the

student teacher must know the physiological, emotional-social, and intellectual needs of children if he is to understand child behavior. Discipline has already been defined as the harmonious coördination of the individual's drives and impulses toward the achievement of his goals. If discipline is to be constructive, each act of a child must be interpreted in the light of these continuing basic needs and the particular goals which the child is pursuing.

A shocking proportion of what is called "misbehavior" in outmoded, traditional, subject-centered schools is due to a school program which disregards many of the basic needs of children. To illustrate, bodily exercise is a basic need for human beings and frequent exercise of the large muscles is a "must" for growing children. A major goal for seven-year-old Joe is to learn to read. But Joe's body can stay still for only short periods of time unless he is asleep. The first twenty minutes of reading time Joe does a good job of staying on his chair because his drives in connection with reading are powerful. When the reading time extends far beyond the relatively brief period, Joe's need for exercising those large muscles begins to compete with his goal of learning to read. He becomes restless and invents excuses for leaving his chair. The longer he is expected to remain inactive the more trouble his body gives him until he may become downright aggressive. The teacher who does not understand physiological needs interprets this behavior as evidence of a lack of interest in reading, an uncoöperative attitude, or just general naughtiness.

The modern teacher, aware of the need on the part of the child for a rhythm of work, exercise, and rest, plans periodic activity throughout the school day and knows that Joe and his classmates must have exercise. The modern teacher knows, too, that work which permits little physical activity may continue for only relatively short periods of time. Through this type of planning a considerable amount of "misbehavior" which is otherwise inevitable may be eliminated.

As a student teacher, you should continue to keep foremost in your thinking the basic needs of children, and remember that any enterprise planned for children which does not take sufficiently into account these basic needs is bound to fail. Thus you can help children to be the decent social beings that they desire to be.

Discipline and Democracy. A major purpose of American public schools is to maintain and improve our democratic society—a society which depends for fulfillment upon coöperative, self-directive and, thus, self-disciplined individuals. To fulfill this purpose, schools should be laboratories in which children come to understand, appreciate, and continuously experience democracy as their way of life. Modern schools, as has been emphasized previously, value respect for the individual personality, and strive for optimum development of the individual in relation to his needs

and purposes and in relation to the demands of the democratic society in which he lives. The modern teacher functions democratically as a leader and a guide. Growth in self-discipline is appraised in terms of the extent to which children share in intelligently making decisions, learn to act on their own thinking, and accept responsibility for their actions. Any acceptable theory of discipline for modern schools must square with these purposes and procedures.

Schools are not alone in attempting to provide for improved practice in democratic living. Other American institutions, too, are adjusting to a rapidly changing social order. It has become more and more apparent that the very existence of democracy and the solution of the tremendous problems of the machine age depend upon the action of self-directive, responsible citizens. *This new trend toward further democratizing our living can be observed in practices in industry.* Workers in our factories are being increasingly encouraged to think for themselves and are being given a share in decision-making. Increasingly, in industry, there is less demand for workers who respond only to dominating leadership. Rather, industry is requesting workers who can contribute ideas as well as brawn, and can control and direct themselves in coöperative undertakings. Industry is also looking to a new type of self-disciplined leader who understands the meaning of coöperative action between employer and employee, foreman and worker. Here is obviously a new interpretation of the meaning of discipline in industrial relations.

In recent years a similar re-interpretation of discipline in a democracy has occurred in the armed forces. No longer can one refer accurately to "military discipline" to exemplify a demand for blind, stupid, unthinking obedience to one's superiors. Our military leaders now know that American men do not operate effectively in an autocratic situation even in the emergency of war. Moreover, World War II furnished evidence that modern warfare with its complicated technical equipment requires men who can be self-directive in action. Thus the training of service men tended to encourage more initiative, coöperation, self-direction, and respect for the other person's intelligence.

With trends toward democratic concepts of self-discipline observable in industry, military organizations, the home, and certain youth groups, what can be said about schools? Have schools been in a leadership position in this real movement toward democracy? Our schools have been widely referred to as reactionary or irresponsible in respect to discipline—as an institution out of step with other institutions. Some critics say that in typical schools children are still regimented and subjected to outmoded forms of punishment for non-conformity. They point out that in most schools children have no significant share in making decisions about their school living and thus are following or learning autocratic patterns of

behavior. These critics assert that schools are depriving children of the opportunity to develop in self-discipline.

Other critics claim that schools permit and encourage laissez faire practices in which children work and play as individualists with little regard for the rights and privileges of others. In these schools, so say the critics, teachers refrain from exerting control of any kind and allow children to "run wild." As a result children are undisciplined and ill-fitted for life outside the school.

While these criticisms of our schools are unjustified or exaggerated, reflecting the confusion that accompanies social change, they do point out that schools must help to reduce social lag. In the guidance of the young, schools must assume a rôle of leadership that is compatible with the directions of change in the culture. It should be clear to the student teacher that schools must be truly democratic in that self-direction must be valued over unthinking conformity, and that respect for the worth and dignity of each child must replace any vestiges of the "master-slave" tradition of child training.

Freedom and Discipline. If you accept the thesis that the primary source of social control resides in the nature of the enterprises being undertaken, you are faced continually with decisions as to the nature of desirable freedom. You will strive for an atmosphere of freedom in your classroom and resist being dictatorial or dominating. Yet on those occasions when you exert control over the children in a firm manner, you may wonder if this procedure on your part is consistent with a modern approach to discipline.

When teachers have difficulty controlling children in an intelligent manner, the cause of the failure is frequently the absence of adequate planning-in-advance. Careful planning by the teacher, supplemented by planning which involves both the children and the teacher, normally results in work, play, and rest which creates situations that of themselves tend to exercise control over what the children do.

The behavior of each child, however, is influenced to a large extent by his past experience. The greater part of these past experiences have taken place outside the school. Thus there are likely to be some children in your group who, when they come to school, are already the victims of seriously miseducative experience. It is not sensible to expect that these children will always respond normally to the school program no matter how wisely and carefully it has been planned. There can be, of course, no set rules or procedures for handling such children. What freedom for them is to mean and what freedom they can be allowed will depend upon the student teacher's knowledge and understanding of each child, and the degree to which their behavior is influencing negatively the work of the whole group. In the school situation, that which is best for most of the

children must ultimately determine the nature of the freedom that any one child is to experience.

The rôle of freedom in the educative process is sufficiently important that guiding principles are offered here. These should answer some of your questions as to the nature of desirable freedom and its relation to discipline.

1. *The teacher can gain knowledge of the real nature of his children only in a school situation which permits freedom of outward movement.* Enforced quiet and sitting still at desks for long periods of time, marching in line, moving only upon signal from the teacher often creates a situation which prevents children from revealing their true natures. In such a regimented classroom children may appear to be attentive, industrious, and obedient only because they have learned that to appear otherwise is to invite trouble. Children should have appropriate and purposeful freedom of movement about the classroom and the school, as well as on the playground. The use of this freedom must be carefully planned.

2. *Bodily activity is involved in intellectual activity for the child of elementary-school age.* Since the greater part of learning for the young child is direct, it is readily apparent that bodily movement is involved in this learning as the child investigates, explores, manipulates, experiments, constructs, dramatizes, and so on. Periods of quiet for reflective thinking, however, should be provided and coöperatively planned. These periods should follow times of activity and be used for organizing and further assimilating what has been learned through overt action.

3. *Freedom which is educative involves freedom of the intellect as well as freedom of physical activity.* When one thinks of freedom for children, he often thinks solely of physical freedom. Educationally significant freedom for the child must include freedom of thought, purpose, desire, observation, and judgment. Rigid question-and-answer recitation, unquestioned acceptance of single authorities, rote memorization of isolated facts, and similar practices violate this important principle.

4. *Freedom is not an end in itself.* Freedom for freedom's sake is an unwise guiding principle for the classroom. Unless freedom for the child is accompanied by thinking, organizing, and planning in connection with worthwhile goals, the freedom may be merely a means by which the child becomes the victim of his own impulses. Unless the child's impulses and drives are controlled by his intelligence, pseudo-freedom will hurt him. In other words, self-discipline and the ability to use freedom wisely must develop together. The amount of freedom that a child can handle, and thus be encouraged to accept, will depend upon the extent to which he can discipline himself. The rôle of the teacher is continuously one of making intelligent choices as to the nature of the freedom that the child can use wisely. He will, at times, find it necessary to withdraw freedom in certain situations from the individual or the group.

5. *The mere removal of external control does not guarantee growth in self-discipline.* Although the child cannot develop self-discipline without freedom to make decisions, this freedom is not in and of itself a guarantee of growth in desirable directions. The teacher must provide freedom for the child only in those situations in which there is a reasonable expectancy that the child can make intelligent decisions. To help the child grow in the ability to use freedom in a responsible way, the teacher must assume his share of responsi-

bility for the child's actions. When the child fails to use freedom properly, the teacher, too, fails to a degree. Children need the security of this shared responsibility.

6. *Freedom and obedience depend upon each other.* Freedom for the child to develop his own judgment through making choices where there are several alternatives must be accompanied with the exercise of obedience in situations where there is no alternative. In some situations in which he will have no choice, the young child must do as the teacher or parent directs. The six-year-old does not decide how he will leave the school building in case of fire. The ten-year-old does not decide whether he will cross the busy thoroughfare at the corner where the safety patrol is stationed or in the middle of the block. The child must learn that in many areas of living he will have the opportunity to make choices, but that in others at a given time he must accept the rôle of obedience. Discipline begins with the acceptance of the rôle of obedience but, as the child matures, *true discipline comes largely from within.* A person is not completely disciplined until he can control himself from within and intelligently accept the rôle of obedience to appropriate outside authority.

7. *When a group decision is reached in solution of a problem, the individual child is not free to decide whether or not he will abide by the decision.* In a well-disciplined classroom many decisions will be made by the entire group in a democratic manner. In this process each child will be encouraged to present evidence and to express opinions. When the decision is reached, however, either by common consent or by vote, then each child is obligated to live by the agreement until new agreements have been reached. The teacher's rôle is to provide the areas of choice in which decisions may be made by the entire group, to arrange and guide democratic processes, and then to share responsibility for translating the decision into action. Children must learn that the privilege of making group decisions is accompanied by responsibility for making the decisions work.

8. *Freedom of choice for the individual child must be accompanied by his acceptance of responsibility.* One of the purposes of the teacher in freeing the child to make choices as to his course of action is to bring him face to face with genuine responsibility. Children should be permitted to make choices important to them; they must learn that they should follow through with what they have decided to do; they must learn to see and accept consequences of unfulfilled obligations. If Mary chooses to use her work period to write a letter in connection with the broad-unit work, then she should work on the letter during that time. Modifications of accepted responsibilities may be justified when unforeseen circumstances, such as illness, fatigue, frustration, or unwise choices, make such modifications the intelligent way to behave.

9. *The amount of freedom and the accompanying responsibility a child is given should be related to his maturity.* Experience in making decisions and accepting responsibility should parallel developmental levels. Too much responsibility, as with too much independence, can be thwarting and frustrating. Furthermore, young children need help in making choices and facing the consequences of their actions. The teacher must help with analyzing mistakes and with re-planning that promises to lead to more satisfying results. In short, the teacher has a continuing responsibility to help the child grow in the ability to make wise choices.

10. *Freedom must be genuine, earned, and continuous.* Freedom that is genuine is not faked or artificial; once given it is not taken back unless the

welfare of the child demands it. A child earns freedom through reasonably intelligent use of it. Freedom is continuous when it is not subject to inconsistencies on the part of the teacher. Freedom in this sense becomes an aspect of living that permeates the atmosphere of the classroom.

In the school and classroom where freedom of the quality discussed above exists, the child is emotionally free to be himself—to be different, to be in the minority, to admit that he does not know, to express honest doubts, to reveal concerns and worries.

Understanding the Causes of Anti-social Behavior. No child is "good" or "bad." Each child behaves in a way that promises to be most satisfying to him. This behavior often tends to be distressing to the teacher in that it disrupts the group in its work or presents evidence that the child is not making growth in proper directions. The modern teacher knows that there are underlying causes for anti-social behavior and searches for those causes.

The primary cause of the anti-social behavior of a given child may stem from an undesirable home situation, an unwholesome neighborhood, membership in a minority group, a rigid school curriculum, physical peculiarities, mental deficiency, or continued association with a tense, unhappy teacher. Often the basic difficulty is a combination of these conditions.

Among the maladjustments that may result from these conditions and cause anti-social behavior are over-protection, rejection, fatigue, hypertension, frustration, malnutrition, undue fear, over-anxiety, and disease. A child suffering from one or more of these maladjustments acts in a manner which offers some hope to him of relieving the condition. Thus, the over-protected child may cry to gain the sympathy of the teacher and his classmates because this behavior has been previously rewarding. The rejected child may be defiant, uncoöperative, and aggressive because repeated friendly overtures have not resulted in acceptance. The important points for the student teacher are that behavior is caused and that guidance toward lasting improvement begins with understanding of the source.

A continuing difficulty for the student teacher is that these maladjustments vary in depth. The difficulty may be extremely deep-seated or it may be shallow and temporary. Normalcy, however, is not the absence of problems. It is a rare child who is not having some difficulty with the problems of living. The child who seems to have no problems whatsoever and behaves habitually in the most conventional manner has probably learned that it is better for him to conceal his problems, and has become expert in so doing. Normalcy involves realistically facing problems, intelligently attacking them, and achieving continued adjustments through reasonable success.

As a student teacher, you will undoubtedly be working with your particular group of children for only a short time—a matter of months. For this reason, especially, you must remember that the progress the child makes in relieving himself from serious maladjustments is slow. A little improvement in behavior is to be greatly respected. Moreover, progress is seldom steady, either with the behavior of the individual or that of the group. A given child will seem to make marked progress and then slip back. This is entirely normal and to be expected. Real improvement can be noted by observing how far the child regresses and whether or not, after his regression, he progresses beyond any previous point of achievement.

Symptoms of Maladjustments. A child's behavior is always indicative, if it can be properly interpreted, of adjustment or maladjustment. Symptoms are important only as they furnish clues to serious difficulties. The teacher will always try to understand aggression, withdrawal, and other such problems as symptoms. He will know that temper tantrums, hitting or slapping, name-calling, sarcasm, and destruction of property are forms of aggressive behavior. He will know, too, that withdrawal is evidenced by such behavior as day dreaming, inattentiveness, extreme forgetfulness, and truancy. Other problems that may be in evidence in his classroom include cheating, stealing, overt defiance, and premature sex behavior. The understanding teacher will seek causation beyond the symptomatic behavior—causation such as rejection, inferiority, frustration, over-anxiety, over-protection, or undue fear.

Real progress seldom comes from a direct attack on these symptoms. Some anti-social behavior in the classroom can be ignored as to any immediate corrective measures and recognized as the symptomatic behavior which it is. Realistically, however, there will be times when the symptomatic behavior must be restrained, when something must be done about it on the spot. This would be true in the following circumstances:

1. When the welfare of the group demands it.
2. When it will be helpful for the future progress of the child himself.
3. When the welfare of another child is involved.
4. When the teacher's prestige and rapport with the group are seriously threatened.
5. When the reputation of the school and its status in the community are at stake.
6. When the principle of democratic leadership is violated.

If ten-year-old Mark repeatedly speaks out of turn, or is continually aggressive toward the teacher, or deliberately hurts smaller children, or maliciously destroys school property, his behavior must be checked. If Mark's behavior in any of these situations were symptomatic of serious rejection, restraining or punishing him would probably not help with

the maladjustment. The teacher acts first, however, in the interests of the whole group, realizes that he is treating the symptom, and continues to work individually with Mark. Your greatest dangers as a student teacher are that you may consider symptoms causes, overlook withdrawal behavior, and regard all aggressive behavior as seriously disruptive.

Punishment and Discipline. Punishment is a method frequently employed in our society to extinguish undesired habits and impel the individual to new behavior. Punishment whether constructive or destructive takes the form of the infliction of physical, mental, or emotional pain or the withdrawal of the goal toward which the undesired behavior is directed. In many schools "punishment" has taken on bad connotations because traditionally punishment was externally imposed by the teacher with little relationship to the nature of the "misbehavior," and with no concern for the basic causes. However, in the process of socialization by which the young child adjusts to his culture and profits from the experience of the race, punishment inevitably plays an important rôle. Punishment may be constructive and educative or destructive and mis-educative. Constructive punishment may ultimately help the child become a stronger person—secure, confident, relaxed, and happy. In general there are two types of constructive punishment: punishment which results as a natural consequence of undesired behavior, and imposed punishment which relates closely to the behavior. Destructive punishment may increase the child's insecurity and fear, worry, and tension. Destructive punishment is usually that which is imposed but has no appropriate relationship to the undesired behavior.

The student teacher will keep continually in mind that self-discipline is the ultimate goal. He must realize, however, that this goal cannot be achieved all at once. Moreover, no two children are at the same point at the same time in progressing toward self-discipline. Some children come to school from homes in which only fear and force are used to control. Other children have been carefully protected from fear and force. What might be accepted as expected punishment by one young child might be a crushing disaster to another.

Punishment which results as a natural consequence of undesirable behavior is more effective than any other in constructively impelling the child to new behavior. The following situations provide examples of punishment which results as a natural consequence of undesired behavior:

The five-year-olds decided to make paper hats for a birthday party. Billy procrastinated, bothered several other children, and then tried to get the teacher to make his hat for him. In spite of some assistance from the teacher, by careless work he spoiled his materials and did not complete his hat. The natural consequence: Billy, alone of all of the children, had no hat to wear to the party.

The ten-year-olds did a lot of work in committees. Eleanor always attempted to dominate the committees with which she worked. Joe voiced the feelings of the children when he said, "Eleanor, you always have to be boss or you will not work." The natural consequence: Eleanor felt unwanted on any committee because the children were not hesitant about voicing their objections to her behavior.

The nine-year-olds had some important construction work to do. They secured permission to use the industrial-arts shop, ordinarily used by the older children only, for three hours each week. Even though they planned carefully, the tools and materials were not wisely used. On two occasions the floor was left unswept. The natural consequence: The older children who used the room immediately following the nine-year-olds reported that their work was being slowed up and permission to use the room was withdrawn.

The teacher's rôle is to help the child see clearly the close relationship between his undesirable behavior and the unpleasant natural consequence. Firmness and kindness are compatible. Unless the natural consequences are too severe, the teacher must not through mistaken sentiment soften the blow. Furthermore, it is the teacher's responsibility to plan with the child future behavior that will avoid similar unpleasant consequences. In discharging this responsibility, the teacher is sympathetic but objective, and avoids any suggestion that the undesired behavior has been a personal affront to him. The student teacher is reminded that his personal disapproval can be communicated to the child through facial expressions and bodily gestures as well as through words. Thus disciplined self-control on the part of the student teacher is necessary.

In many situations involving undesirable behavior, the teacher has no choice but to impose punishment. This is true for three reasons. First, the natural consequence may be beyond the understanding of the child at his stage of development. Second, the unpleasant effect of the natural consequence may be deferred too far into the future to be effective in changing behavior. Third, the natural consequence may not be strong enough to deter the child's undesirable actions. The following situations provide examples of punishment imposed by the teacher which relates closely to the undesirable behavior:

Eight-year-old Susan at the close of school, morning and afternoon, repeatedly ran carelessly down the dangerous steps leading from the school. One day she had knocked down a six-year-old and another day she had tumbled herself. The teacher and the group had talked about the necessity for care and desirability of courtesy. Susan's behavior changed very little. The imposed consequence: Susan must wait in the classroom until the steps were clear of other children.

The eleven-year-old group had planned a trip by bus to a local newspaper office. Preliminary planning had included a discussion of proper behavior on the bus. Soon after leaving the school grounds, most of the children had arms out of the windows cutting the air with their hands or waving at people. Some of the children even had their heads out of the bus windows shouting at people in passing cars. *The imposed consequence: The teacher directed the bus driver to return to the school where plans were made for the children to notify the newspaper office with appropriate apologies.*

If this type of punishment is to be constructive, it involves appropriate withdrawals of immediate goals which are related to the children's own purposes. Frank could not build his farm; Susan could not hurry out of the school building; and the eleven-year-olds could not complete their trip. The consequences imposed by the teacher must relate directly to the undesired behavior, must be appropriate to the maturity level of the group, and must follow closely in time the undesired behavior. Once the consequence has been imposed, the teacher should consider the punishment ended and permit an entirely new start to be made. Scolding, blaming, negatively referring back to the situation, and otherwise encouraging guilt feelings on the part of the children may destroy the constructiveness of the original punishment. Above all, the children must understand the causal relationship between the undesired behavior and the imposed consequences.

Destructive punishment is that which is imposed by the teacher with little or no appropriate relationship to the undesirable behavior. Punishment of this type is often administered by the teacher because his personal authority has been challenged or because he feels inferior and inadequate in the situation. The teacher generally employs this imposed punishment in a spirit of "getting even," "an eye for an eye," or "paying for sin." It is treating the symptoms in its most extreme form and usually has little positive effect in changing child behavior in desirable directions or in developing self-discipline. Types of teacher imposed punishment, unrelated to the behavior, are:

1. Keeping the child in the classroom at recess time or after the regular session for some "misbehavior" during the day.
2. Assigning low marks in "conduct," or even in skill or subject-matter areas, on written reports to parents.
3. Using sarcasm, ridicule, or nagging.

4. Using subtleties of punishment such as ignoring a child over long periods of time, rejecting with facial expressions, or deliberately asking the child to do something that is beyond his ability.
5. Depriving the child of some favored activity, such as art or physical education, because of undesirable behavior in an altogether different activity.
6. Hitting, spanking, or slapping a child.
7. Requiring memorization of, or writing over and over, selections intended to "improve character," such as "I will not cheat."
8. Assigning heavy loads of drill exercises such as fifty additional arithmetic problems or twenty difficult spelling words.
9. Subjecting the child to verbal ridicule or placing him in ridiculous and embarrassing situations, such as standing the child in the hallway outside the classroom, or forcing him to hold his nose within a circle on the chalkboard.

There is no place in the modern elementary school for such punishment. The teacher who uses these unrelated, destructive measures indicates that he has no understanding of child development, that he is unrealistic in applying standards of behavior, or that he is confusing an outmoded type of character education with personality development.

Any punishment to be educative, to lead to improved behavior, must be understood and accepted by the child. If children under your guidance are to relate punishment to consequences, it is especially important that you act consistently. Children must know what is expected of them and be able to make reasonably accurate predictions as to the reaction of the teacher to their behavior. Children are confused by either adult leniency which suddenly becomes hard, "cold justice," or unexpected laxity in an otherwise rigid program. The teacher to live sensibly with children must make many agreements with them as to alternate consequences of future action. Without being rigid or unsympathetic, he must follow through on agreed-upon consequences. Young children gain security from consistency of action on the part of adults. In this matter of punishment, every teacher may make mistakes. At these times the teacher must admit the error, must make such amends that the child feels that he has been treated fairly, and openly acknowledge his error before other persons who have witnessed or become involved in any way in the episode.

The student teacher is reminded that even constructive punishment, if imposed, is a resource that seldom helps with the basic cause of the undesirable behavior. Most children at home and at school are subjected to much unnecessary punishment. Frequently this punishment occurs in connection with new experiences where the child is not clear as to what constitutes acceptable behavior in the situation. As a result, most individuals in our society come to anticipate punishment in new learning situations. Thus the process of socialization in childhood has contributed

to the anxiety that is characteristic of so many adults. In its milder form, anxiety makes new learning difficult and discourages a healthy attack upon the strange and the new. In extreme cases, anxiety causes the individual to become completely inadequate in facing and solving the problems of living. In summary, the student teacher is encouraged to make effective use of punishment which results as a natural consequence of behavior. He should employ imposed punishment which relates appropriately to the undesired behavior, realistically. He will remember, however, that much punishment even of this type can be avoided by careful planning.

DISCIPLINE AS GUIDANCE

Through intelligent teacher guidance, many "discipline" situations may be avoided. The teacher can hardly be a mature friend, fellow worker, and understanding advisor to children and at the same time fill the rôle of super-policeman, anxiously on the alert to detect and punish some offender. *Effective methods of teacher control seek to avoid conflicts with children, are inconspicuous, and emphasize rightness of behavior rather than wrongness.* The old cliché that the teacher who disciplines least is the best disciplinarian has much to commend it. This, of course, does not imply that the good disciplinarian is not concerned with anti-social behavior. It must be interpreted, rather, to mean that the teacher who understands himself, who studies individual children, who analyzes the behavior of his group, and who plans carefully for each school day will less frequently find himself in a position that requires the use of his personal authority.

Understanding Individual Children. Much has been said previously about studying children and keeping records of pertinent information. In relation to discipline, however, it may be necessary for you, as a student teacher, to make an especially careful study of one or more children whose behavior seems to indicate serious maladjustment. A mal-adjusted child, as you know, may be extremely aggressive or he may be excessively timid and withdrawing.

After you have identified a particular child for study, you must first carefully analyze the symptomatic behavior that leads you to suspect some serious difficulty. It would then seem advisable to discuss the child with your critic teacher, profiting from his longer experience with the youngster in question. In this conference you would use existing school records as well as the information you have accumulated during your student teaching. The discussion should be on a professional level, with a clinical approach in which gossip is avoided and confidential data sympathetically interpreted. This conference should result in a tentative plan for your guidance of the child in the future. At this point, you will begin with

the agreements in methods of handling the child which the critic teacher and you have decided upon. You may also be able to get assistance in ways of working with the child from parents, the principal, and other school personnel such as the nurse, physician, or psychologist.

As you continue to study and work with the child, you must establish rapport with him in order to succeed. If he likes and trusts you, he is more likely to tell you his problems as he understands them and give you an opportunity to help him. Pertinent information often comes from casual conversations and many such brief informal talks should precede any attempt to sit down with the child for a more formal conference about his behavior. You will have to interpret and draw inferences from what the child says since he undoubtedly will not fully understand the reasons for his actions.

The importance of providing times in the school day when children have freedom of bodily movement and choice of activities has been stressed. Only through freedom to follow his urges and desires will the child reveal his true nature. You can learn about the child by watching him at free play on the playground or in the gymnasium, in the work period, as he chooses books from the library corner, at work with a committee, and in other activities in which he feels relatively free.

A particularly lucrative source of clues to basic difficulties is the child's creative activities. He may be observed as he works with clay, paint, wool, metal, leather, and yarn; as he writes and dramatizes; as he creates in the field of music and rhythm. The child will reveal himself through his choice of creative activities, his choice of materials, the subjects of his creations, his choice of language, his bodily movements and facial expressions as he creates, and his attitudes toward his creations. As you study the creative endeavors of children, you must guard against the dangers of misinterpretation and overgeneralization.

When you have studied the child sufficiently and have developed rapport with him, you are ready for a more formal conference. It is usually advisable to watch for an appropriate situation so that your conference can begin with the discussion of specific behavior in a given situation rather than general patterns of behavior. Your opening remarks should convey friendliness, genuine interest, and sincerity. Throughout the conference you should seek to prevent tension, resentment, embarrassment, or a punitive atmosphere. It is particularly important that the talk be in the child's language pattern. In relation to the results of the conference the following cautions and suggestions are offered:

1. Avoid penalizing the child because of information given during the conference.
2. Avoid exacting pledges and promises.
3. Leave him with the feeling that other children have had similar problems.

4. Relieve guilt and let him feel that repetition of the behavior will not result in dire consequences.
5. Encourage him to suggest next steps that he can manage for the improvement of his behavior.
6. Leave the door open for the child to initiate future conferences.

Careful study of a child may result in new information and clearer insight as to the basic causes of his difficulty. Your tentative plans for guiding the child should be modified in terms of new understandings. Occasionally, however, continued study of a child whose behavior indicates serious maladjustment will not reveal to you or your critic teacher satisfactory explanations of the child's actions. His behavior continues or becomes even more extreme. With this child you will need the help of a specialist—a school psychologist or psychiatric worker. To know when expert help is needed in understanding individual children is a responsibility of the modern teacher. For the teacher to request such help is not an admission of weakness. It is, rather, a mark of professional competence to be able to recognize as early as possible symptoms of deep-seated emotional and mental unhealthfulness and to seek the aid of specialists skilled in the diagnosis and treatment of severe maladjustment.

Understanding Groups of Children. Although the teacher must strive continually to understand children as individuals, his daily, direct contact with them is primarily through the group. The times in the school day when the teacher can devote himself solely to one child are brief and infrequent. Usually the teacher's rôle is conceived as that of group leader. In performing this function he must be concerned with group purposes, group behavior, and group morale. Realistically, however, when twenty-five or more children are put together for administrative purposes, they may be just so many individuals and not a group at all. The close association of children in the same classroom, whether as individualists, cliques and gangs, or as unified groups, results in the development of many attitudes and behavior patterns generally characteristic of the classroom membership. Thus, teachers speak of "good" or "dependable" or "excitable" or "restless" or "bad" classes. True groups, although made up of individuals, have personalities and operate as social organisms.

In terms of social dynamics the individual personality has meaning only in relation to the group with which it is identified. In the various groups of which he is simultaneously a member, the individual child plays a different rôle and therefore is actually a different person. In a group, for instance, in which the morale is good, human relations fine, and goals praiseworthy a weak child may be motivated to better and more effective performance. If the student teacher is to offer effective guidance, then, he needs to study the patterns of behavior within which these particular children operate as a constellation. He needs to be alert to the friendships,

the cliques, the potential gangs, the leaders and followers among the children with whom he works. He needs to recognize in all types of school situations that growth in desirable group behavior is important in itself and that individual children become socially mature through membership in true groups.

In studying and guiding the group you will want to develop habits and skills by which you can become conscious of, observe, and react to the entire group. In a sense you will need "to see everyone at the same time." You will need, also, to be always conscious of the classroom atmosphere and the interrelationships between members of the group. Maintaining consciousness of the entire group is a habit and a skill; it is learned behavior by the teacher.

When the entire group acts in an undesirable manner, the cause will often be found in one of two general categories: the group is acting in the way that it does because of general conditions in the classroom or the school; or the group is being unduly influenced by an individual child or subgroup.

Group Disruptions Caused by General Conditions. The maladjustments of the individual child as a cause of his undesirable behavior has frequently been emphasized. It has been observed that many of these maladjustments have been produced by conditions over which the school has no control. This important emphasis, however, is not intended to convey the impression that the school is free from responsibility in causes of individual or group discipline problems. Such general conditions in the school environment as improper housing, an unrealistic curriculum, unhealthy inter-personal relations, and destructive emotional climate do actually cause, or further contribute to, the dilemmas of discipline in the classroom. General conditions cause group problems when through them children are deprived of normal satisfactions which their school work should give. Thus, instead of having a "poor group" or "bad children" the teacher may find the cause of the difficulty in poor lighting or ventilation, in crowded conditions, or in restrictive curriculum experiences. Careful study of one school plant revealed that rooms were noisy rather than children. In this way it may be said that general conditions cause group disruptions when the same set of conditions would produce similar undesirable behavior with a different group of children.

The curriculum can be the source of group discipline situations. The general standards of achievement for subject matter and skill work may be too high or too low. If they are too low, the children are not challenged and search for other outlets for their energies and releases of tensions. If the standards are too high, children become frustrated, and general restlessness or aggressive behavior may result. Pressure from the volume of work normally expected may be so great that feelings of guilt build up.

These guilt feelings have their expression in various kinds of anti-social behavior. School activities may be uninteresting, and even boring, because they are unsuited to the developmental level of the children. The school day may be planned in disregard of the basic need of a rhythm of work, rest, and play. Planning may be so inadequate that the children are frequently confused as to what they are supposed to be doing and how they are to do it. The planning may disregard a sensible sequence of activities such that, for example, music immediately follows physical education in the daily program. Evaluation may be undemocratic and downright unfair, or appear so to children. Any of these potential weaknesses in the curriculum may cause group discipline situations.

Improper housing can cause group disruptions. Too much or too little heat, too much or too little light, bad acoustical conditions, continued noise from outside the classroom, crowded conditions, chairs that do not fit, absence of provision for care of personal belongings, and dirty, drab walls may be responsible for, or contribute to, undesirable group behavior.

Unhealthy inter-personal relations may cause undesirable group behavior. Children make strong friendships and band together in various kinds of sub-groups for negative as well as constructive purposes. Only through participation in sub-groups can children grow toward social maturity. However, these groupings can get out of hand to the extent that a livable atmosphere for the classroom group becomes impossible. A group of slow learners, for instance, denied normal satisfactions in their school living, may devote themselves to disrupting the work of the class. In another situation two groups may compete with each other for the prestige that comes from challenging the leadership of the teacher. If the teacher is severe and dominating, the children in their frustration may become habitually aggressive toward each other because they dare not be aggressive toward the teacher. This aggression may take the form of sub-group against sub-group. In an extreme form, the aggression may result in scape-goating in which a weak child receives the abuse of the other children. It is, of course, sometimes true that unhealthy inter-personal relations originate outside the school, rooted in economic, racial, or religious structuring. However, under proper guidance and leadership from the teacher, negative community influences can usually be modified with children of elementary-school age so that healthy group living in the school can be approximated.

Group discipline problems are often explained by the emotional climate of the classroom. When the climate is wholesome, group pride exists with each child having a real place, his contributions accepted and respected. Children in such a group are concerned about the welfare of each other and have a general concern that "our group" do well and be thought well

of by others. The teacher, the mature adult of the group, is trusted, liked, and respected by the children because he trusts, likes, and respects them. When the reverse of these relationships exists, the emotional climate is negative and often characterized by unfriendly competition, destructive suspicion, and the general expectancy of indiscriminately imposed punishment.

An undesirable emotional climate is frequently caused by the teacher through the handling of his friendship rôle. The teacher may abandon any pretense of friendship with the children and convey the impression that, since they constitute a "problem group," they must be controlled by fear, threat, and force. On the other hand, the teacher may pretend friendship and assume apparent unaggressiveness with the deliberate intention of inducing guilt feelings in the group. This teacher avoids direct punishment but instead disciplines indirectly by causing children to feel that they have done wrong and would be punished except that the teacher "loves" them so much. Such a teacher is even more difficult for children to live with than the obviously aggressive teacher. When children, seeking to grow up and become self-directive, know that they have behaved badly, or are thought to have behaved badly, they normally want to face the consequences and "clean the slate."

The student teacher, seeking to understand group behavior, must be aware of these general conditions that may cause disruptions in group behavior. He is reminded that a "discipline situation" is usually caused by a combination of negative influences. Frequently, however, one general condition is the primary cause and its removal or modification can make tremendous differences in the behavior of the group.

Group Disruptions Caused by the Individual Child. A study and analysis of general conditions in the classroom will not result in satisfactory explanations of the undesirable behavior of some groups. On occasion, the primary source of the group difficulty will be the behavior of one seriously maladjusted child. The teacher will probably know that a particular child has personality problems which he is not meeting successfully, but he may not fully grasp the total effect of this child's behavior upon the group. The presence in the classroom of the child in question may be disruptive to the group on two counts. First, the direct relations of the child with the other children may have a seriously negative influence. Second, the way in which the teacher handles the child may itself be disturbing. The case of Jerry is an example:

Jerry, an illegitimate child, lived with his mother until he was seven when he was taken from her because of her drunkenness and neglect. Placed in a boarding home, he came under the supervision of an elderly woman who, not understanding his behavior, attempted to control him through repeated thrashings. At nine years of age Jerry was attending the third grade of a

school in a relatively privileged community. Jerry repeatedly isolated himself from the other children, refused to join the sharing circle or the discussion group, stayed by himself on the playground. On several occasions, Jerry stole food from lunch boxes and twice took milk money. Frequently, Jerry talked or sang loudly, addressing no one in particular. Once Jerry hit his teacher with his fist. This behavior occurred over a two-month period. During this time the third-grade group became more and more restless and the teacher was rapidly losing her position of leadership. Although she knew Jerry's history, she could not fully understand his behavior because, mentally ill, he needed the attention of a specialist. Because she knew about Jerry's unhappy life she tried to be "understanding." Thus, Jerry was not forced to join the group for various activities. Aggressions toward the teacher and toward other children at times went unpunished by the teacher, and interruptions of the group work were generally tolerated. As a result of the treatment, Jerry's behavior improved not at all. He seemed incapable of responding realistically to the situation. The other children resented Jerry's privileged status and could not understand a teacher who would permit a child to openly challenge her authority—even to the point of striking her. The teacher's request for expert help was heeded and the sick child was removed from the school and placed where he could have psychiatric treatment. With Jerry gone, the third-grade group began to respond normally to the guidance of their teacher.

In this situation the child was so seriously maladjusted that the teacher's work was ineffective in producing desirable changes in his behavior. The teacher's efforts were most effective, however, in securing evidence by which he became convinced that the child needed expert diagnosis and treatment. In many cases where the individual child is disrupting the group, the efforts of the teacher will result in inducing changed behavior in the child and thereby remove a primary cause of the group discipline situation. As the teacher works with a particular maladjusted child, however, he must always be sensitive to the group reaction. In the first place, it is usually necessary to accept behavior from such a child that is below the standard for the group in general. The child cannot change his behavior all at once and regressions must be expected. In the second place, the teacher will study the group reactions to his handling of the maladjusted child. He will particularly watch for evidence that the group feels that favoritism is being shown, that the teacher is being unfair, and that he is neglecting the many for the one.

As much as is possible the group should be helped to understand why the child in question is in a somewhat privileged position. The teacher, of course, would not discuss with the group the child's case history, divulge information which should be held in confidence, or otherwise rob the child of any basis for self-respect in the eyes of his peers. He will, however, discuss with the children at their level of understanding general causes of undesirable behavior with particular reference to the types of behavior shown by the child in question. He will discuss with the children

the specific behavior of the child, emphasizing that he needs help from the group and must be given a chance to improve. In the absence of the child, it may be desirable to encourage the group to express resentments of privileged treatment, make accusations of unfairness, and ask questions that lead to further explanation. The teacher is calm, permissive, objective. He listens to opinions, explains, and further interprets his actions. He may admit that he has neglected the group or that he has made mistakes. Above all, the teacher conveys the impression that while he is interested in the welfare of all of them, he must ask them to take on faith that he is doing the best he can for the particular maladjusted child. If the group can become genuinely interested in the progress of the child, a major part of that problem is solved, and the cause of the group discipline situation on the way toward elimination.

When an individual child is unduly and negatively influencing the group, the school is often not responsible for causing maladjustment. However, there are many cases in which the child behaves badly and influences the group negatively because of general conditions in the classroom. For example, unfair evaluation by the teacher may so upset a child that his whole attitude toward the school situation changes. As a result, he may concentrate on sabotaging the work of the group as a way of "repaying" the teacher. Obviously, after he has discovered the causes, the teacher can remedy these kinds of situations. In fact, in all cases when an individual child disrupts the group, the teacher can and must do something constructive about it.

Discipline by Peers. The behavior of a child at any age level of the elementary school is strongly influenced by the opinions of children of approximately the same age and maturity. This desire for the approval of peers is present in the kindergarten and becomes progressively more insistent until in the later-elementary grades the good opinions of one's peers are normally more highly valued than the approval of the teacher. Pre-adolescent children will even go so far as to challenge dangerously the authority of a dominant teacher if the behavior promises to win the respect of classmates. This intense drive to be accepted and respected by one's peers is, of course, to be encouraged as a healthy aspect of growing up.

The modern teacher does encourage discipline by peers but realizes that it must be carefully guided and controlled. Young children frequently make snap judgments or base decisions on partial evidence. They are still in the beginning stages of learning to act responsibly in consideration of the welfare of others, and frequently do not do so. Then, too, there is much of their own behavior that they do not understand. This can be seen, for example, in "scape-goating." Children often do not know the causes of the frustrations that lead to their abuse of weaker children.

Furthermore, young children have limited conception of the amount of pressure or punishment that a given child can profitably take. Thus, the teacher continually guides and maintains control of the situation as he faces the repeated dilemma of when to refer problems to the group and when to protect a child's self-respect by shielding him from the group.

Under the guidance and control of the teacher, children can enter constructively into the discipline of peers in various ways. As a group they can discuss the conduct appropriate to a given situation and formulate standards of behavior to which each child is to adhere. They can evaluate the conduct of their group. They can consider, on occasion, the conduct of an individual child and suggest desirable changes in his behavior. They can help a child who invites their help by interpreting proper behavior, by reminding, by observing improvements, and by accepting regressions in behavior. They frequently may be a party to punishment that results as a natural consequence of undesirable behavior, such, for example, that a given child is not chosen for a team or a committee, for individual room responsibilities, or as a neighbor in the shating circle. Any of these direct or indirect ways by which children discipline peers may result in action which is positive and constructive or negative and destructive. The guidance of the teacher will play a large part in deciding whether the total effect of discipline by peers in a given classroom will be good or bad.

Children of elementary-school age must not be permitted to share the responsibility of the teacher for imposing needed punishments on peers. When other procedures have failed and imposed punishment becomes necessary, the teacher must decide the nature of the penalty. At times, imposed punishments will be explained to the group; at other times, to protect the child from his peers, the matter will be on a confidential child-teacher basis. Children's courts which are concerned with judging the behavior of individual children and meting out punishments are particularly inappropriate for the elementary school. If such student-government bodies are employed, they should participate in policy making—in considering conduct appropriate for given situations and establishing standards of behavior.

Standards of Behavior Vary with the Situation. In his guidance rôle, the modern teacher continually faces the problem of determining acceptable standards of behavior. He knows that these standards are specific applications of principles of human relations. Principles of human relations in American schools stem from the demands of our democratic society and from the needs of developing personalities. Thus, a principle of human relations which democracy demands is that each person must have a share in making decisions as far as he is able about those things which concern him, and must accept responsibility for making decisions

that consider the welfare of all. A principle of human relations that stems from personality needs is that each individual is of inestimable worth and must be respected by the people with whom he lives and works. Each teacher guides children with a set of principles such as these in mind. As he better understands the nature of democracy and the needs of wholesome personalities, the principles by which he operates become clearer and more highly integrated. Standards of behavior, then, are applications of principles such as these.

The traditional teacher has frequently erred in assuming that standards of behavior can be rigidly applied in a variety of activities and situations. Thus he imposed a list of specific rules to guide children in their school living. This procedure is questionable for a number of reasons. Imposed rules of conduct constitute a dare and a challenge to children—an invitation to opposition. Such rules are often repressive in character and emphasize what *not* to do. Ultimately imposed rules have to be supported with force, often with punishment unrelated to the undesired behavior. But even more pertinent is that such rules are ineffective, unworkable, and negative as guides for the behavior of young children. Here is a list of rules that appeared on one schoolroom bulletin board:

Rules for Good Citizens

Talk quietly!
Walk; don't run!
Work hard; idleness causes trouble!
Never hit or slap other children!
Always be cheerful and pleasant!
Always be neat and clean!

An analysis of this list reveals, of course, that these rules are unworkable because not any of them can be applied realistically to the various activities of the school day and the unique school situations in which children find themselves. Young children are incapable of fine distinctions and attempt to apply such rules indiscriminately. Since one does not talk quietly all day long—if he is healthy and of elementary-school age—he abandons this guide as unworkable. He does likewise with other specific rules that are intended to be applicable to all school situations. Moreover, unreasonable rules, rigidly enforced, may teach children to submerge their natural drives. For example, in attempting to obey the rule "Always be neat and clean," the child becomes so inhibited that he cannot work comfortably with clay or finger paints.

Rigid rules of conduct are unworkable not only because different kinds of behavior are suitable for the various activities of the school day, but also because an individual child to be effective must behave somewhat differently in the various groups of which he is a member. Moreover,

rules of conduct, imposed for a group, do not take sufficiently into account developmental differences in children. One child kicks furniture and spills paint through deliberately aggressive behavior. Another apparently behaves in the same way but through lack of motor coordination. Human behavior cannot be reduced to simple, specific rules. Teaching adherence to fixed standards of behavior through automatic, rote responses helps children not at all. Rather they must be helped to analyze situations and make intelligent choices of appropriate behavior.

Various activities impose their own particular standards of behavior. As opposed to rules, standards of behavior emphasize the democratic conduct necessary for success in a particular activity. These standards deal with the positive, desirable things to be done. They are developed by applying general principles of human relations to activities which retain characteristic features. Thus children can understand and accept as a sensible standard of behavior that ordinarily one person talks at a time in a group discussion; that tools must be shared in construction work; that each member of a committee must work responsibly if the report is to be ready on time; that children must remain seated while the school bus is in motion.

Children grow in self-discipline through repeated group experiences in analyzing the behavior needed in particular situations, in agreeing upon standards, and in living in accordance with their agreements. For example, an older group of elementary-school children under the guidance of their teacher analyzed their weaknesses and strengths in committee work and tentatively agreed upon the kind of behavior needed for successful work. They then developed standards of behavior for this activity and agreed to try to live by them. These are the standards they established:

Each Committee Member Should

1. Work coöperatively for the good of the committee.
2. Be willing to act as chairman if chosen.
3. Coöperate with the chairman.
4. Be willing to do what all of the committee members decide.
5. Do his share in making plans.
6. Make good use of committee work time.
7. Work quietly when others are doing work for which they need quiet.
8. Have his part of the work completed on time.
9. Help other committee members when they need it.
10. Be willing to take part in committee reports.
11. Help put away materials and clean up when committee work periods are finished.

As you work with children, you will want to develop coöperatively with them standards of behavior for various activities of the school day. These standards of behavior should be developed when a need for them

becomes apparent and should be modified when changed conditions demand it.

Discipline in Specific Types of Situations. As a student teacher, you will be responsible for guiding your group in analyzing the kinds of behavior needed in various school activities. Only through many such experiences can children grow in the ability to relate appropriateness of behavior to the demands of the situation. This creative approach in facing group problems and making intelligent choices is an indispensable phase of becoming self-directive. The primary emphasis in this analysis is upon "What are we trying to do?" and "How should we behave in order to get it done?" You must play a major rôle, not only in guiding children to intelligent agreements on standards of behavior but also in seeing that the agreements are put into action. The following suggestions should help you with this important part of your guidance work:

1. *Reading and research time.* The concentration necessary for these types of activities requires relative quiet. Verbal communication should be held to a minimum; children should use well-modulated voices for necessary talk. When the teacher helps an individual child or small group, he too should use a low tone of voice. Sharing and discussion of what has been read should generally follow the reading and research rather than go on concurrently. Moving about the room, too, should be held to a minimum and performed with as little disturbance to others as possible. As far as is practicable, materials for reading, research, and recording should be secured at the beginning of the period. At the early-elementary level, when one group is reading with the teacher, the independent work of the other children must be planned in consideration of the needs of the readers. The student teacher is reminded that this type of quiet work must be planned for relatively short periods of time only. At the later-elementary level, when a small group needs to work together on reading or research, the teacher should see that the group has a place to meet that is both adequate for cooperative group work and undisturbing to the individual workers.

2. *Activity and work time.* In the daily schedule, time is devoted to active work: painting, constructing, dramatizing, arranging displays, and so on. At this time the children should have considerable freedom for communication with each other. Usually there need be no curbing of purposeful talk or purposeful movements about the room. Agreements will have to be made, however, for the reduction of unnecessary noises such as loud voices or explosive sounds from the careless handling of tools and materials. When the group is large in relation to work space, children must be particularly sensitized to the effects of the accumulation of unnecessary noises. Since this is a time for serious business rather than play, behavior which is suitable will be conducive to getting ahead with the planned work. Thus a child should feel free to talk with another about his work, not to visit about last Saturday's movie; to walk across the room for more paint, not to disturb the work of another child. Careful pre-planning and evaluation along with helpful supervision usually result in profitable work periods. However, if the work does not go well, you must do something about it. At times you may even need to terminate the work and call the group together to reconsider agreements as to

standards of behavior and to replan where planning was short-sighted. In activity or work time, where so much freedom makes sense, it is especially important that the time be used wisely. Growth in self-direction comes through experiences in making wise choices and acting responsibly. Irresponsibility is destructive and negates freedom.

3. *Rest time.* This activity, too, imposes its own standards of behavior. A quiet, relaxed atmosphere in a darkened room is desirable so that all of the children rest and some even drop off to sleep. Mats, rugs, or cots should be arranged, if space is available, so that children cannot easily touch each other. Visiting between children should be considered undesirable behavior. The teacher should be calm, relaxed, and speak, when necessary, in very low tones. The teacher's movements about the room should be for the purpose only of helping children relax. Since it disturbs the rest of others, movement about the room by children should be strongly discouraged. Some turning, twisting, and stretching is, of course, quite normal for young children and helps them to relax. Quiet reading to the children or the playing of soothing music should be employed sparingly and for the purpose only of helping the children rest.

4. *Discussion and planning time.* Group discussion is facilitated when the children can be arranged so that each child can see the faces of the others. The teacher guides the sharing of ideas or objects in such a way that, while too much talking by any one child is considered undesirable behavior, not contributing at all is likewise undesirable. In a genuine group discussion an important standard of behavior is that each person accepts responsibility for listening and trying to understand what the speaker has to say. Since the children are seated close together, there must be agreements directed toward eliminating visiting with friends, nudging and pushing neighbors, grimacing and gesturing, or playing with extraneous objects.

Especially in guiding group discussion must the teacher "see everybody at the same time." He must continually draw back to the group children whose attention is beginning to stray. He may keep the discussion going by asking stimulating questions, advancing new ideas, tactfully interrupting a child whose contribution is not helpful, or by helping a child express himself more clearly. On the other hand, too much teacher dominance in directing the discussion encourages children to lose interest, to "go out of the field." Such dominance will also discourage children from participating intelligently in the establishing of standards of behavior and in accepting responsibility for living up to them.

5. *In the assembly.* Children can learn to behave appropriately in large assemblies both at school and in the community. The school can work on this problem by helping children better understand the demands of a large audience situation and by making them responsible for acting intelligently. Young children must learn how behavior appropriate for large gatherings differs from that appropriate for the small group. They must learn when to talk with one's neighbors and when to be silent, they must understand when and how to applaud; they must learn that a receptive audience improves the performance; they must learn how to enter and leave a large assembly room. They must learn, too, that appropriate behavior relates to the nature and purpose of the assembly. For this reason, in preparing for a particular assembly, it is usually wise for the teacher to tell the children the purpose of the assembly and guide the discussion of standards of behavior accordingly.

When practical in terms of time available and physical facilities, children should enter the assembly hall naturally, rather than marching lockstep, and

have some choice as to where they will sit. While waiting for the assembly program to begin, they should learn to converse in modulated voices. Ordinarily, after the program begins, conversation should cease. At the end of the program, talking to friends should again be acceptable behavior and the children should be permitted to leave the assembly room considerately, taking turns without crowding, pushing, or loud talk.

While in the assembly room, the teacher must be responsible for supervising his group. Children who wilfully break agreements must sometimes be sent from the assembly room. Those who repeatedly behave inconsiderately may have to be punished by having the assembly privilege temporarily withdrawn. This teacher supervision must not degenerate into regimentation. There are strong reasons for believing that much of the disruptive behavior in large audiences today is related to the school's closely routinized behavior patterns which rob children of the opportunity to learn how to behave.

6. *In the hallways and on the stairs.* Most schools have established necessary standards of behavior for hallways and stairs to which the classroom group must adjust. Modern schools avoid rigid rules and try to give children freedom to act responsibly. Children are permitted to enter the building without waiting for a bell. They talk naturally with friends as they move about the building. Walking, rather than running, is considered to be a standard of behavior that makes for safety and consideration of others. Children are taught that the stairs and hallways are not usually play space. When lockers are located in hallways, agreements are made to reduce noise and confusion. All such agreements must be related to the developmental levels of the children. For example, six-year-olds will normally show less control in using stairs and manipulating lockers than eleven-year-olds.

Criticism is frequently directed toward modern schools for the behavior of children in hallways and on the stairs. On occasion, visitors observe children discourteously pushing, shouting, or running. Such a breakdown in behavior is likely to occur when any one teacher neglects his responsibility. As a student teacher, this phase of your guidance work should receive alert attention. You will need to give inconspicuous supervision to conduct outside the classroom and devote sufficient time with your group to the discussion of appropriate behavior. Periodically it will be necessary for the group to evaluate their behavior, and sometimes to modify standards and make new agreements. When agreements are repeatedly and deliberately violated, it is your job to impose punishment that relates to the undesirable behavior.

7. *In the lavatories.* One of the most difficult problems of guidance that must be realistically faced concerns the use of the lavatories. With five-, six-, and seven-year-olds, direct supervision is frequently necessary, particularly when the lavatories are some distance from the classroom or when clothing is difficult to manipulate. With older children, the problem is one of frankly discussing with them their responsibilities in using lavatories hygienically, doing their share to keep the lavatories neat, and in being sensible about the use of soap and towels. Individual children should be given permission to go to the toilets whenever necessary during the day. There should be understandings, however, that they go and return directly, that they go one at a time, and that their going is not disruptive to the work of the group.

8. *On the playground.* The playground should normally be a place where children are free to run and shout, free from the controls that are necessary in the relative confinement of the classroom and school building. However,

there must be planning for the use of this freedom. Standards of behavior for the playground are necessary. Arrangements must be made which provide for safety: use of equipment; location of play space in relation to busy streets; provision that young children are not endangered by the rough play of older ones; and protection of children from extreme aggressiveness of others. Arrangements must be made, too, that contribute positively to happy and healthful play: proper equipment made readily available, play activities planned and organized, serious disputes settled, and undesirable groupings of children discouraged. Over-organization of playground time should be avoided. Children need some time to play, or not, as they choose. Agreements must also be made for the termination of play time at a pre-arranged signal, for appropriate behavior in returning to the classroom, and for putting away play equipment.

As a student teacher, you will want to be on the playground regularly, supervising and participating in the play. However, it is desirable that children occasionally be completely on their own. Following these independent play times, brief group evaluations of playground behavior are useful.

9. *In the lunchroom.* Health considerations demand that children wash before eating, eat unhurriedly, and be as relaxed as possible during the meal. Of somewhat lesser importance are the considerations of mannerly behavior. It is desirable that children learn to eat properly and converse pleasantly, and that they practice both eating and conversing as well as they know how. Too much pressure, however, in relation to properly holding the fork, keeping elbows off the table, breaking sandwiches into small pieces, and so on, can endanger the much more important emotional atmosphere. One of the major considerations for a desirable lunch situation is that the whole procedure be unhurried. The teacher's manner during the lunch period is of significant influence. Tenseness, inspectorial attitudes, or nagging should be avoided in favor of a natural poise and ease. Good manners can be taught by example.

Generally, it is best for the group to agree on minimum times for washing, for eating, and for cleaning up. Otherwise children will too often hurry their eating to get to the playground. It is, of course, imperative that a punitive atmosphere be avoided at lunch time. When discipline problems arise, elaborate discussion and action should be deferred when possible until after the children have finished eating.

10. *On educational trips.* Two major factors influence standards of behavior for trips. The behavior must be such that, first, optimum learning results from the trip and, second, the children as representatives of their school make a good impression on the public. Children can give intelligent consideration to each of these factors as they establish standards of behavior in the careful planning sessions that precede each field experience. You must not take children from the school for direct experience in the community until you and the group have agreed upon standards of behavior which are clear to each child, and every child has accepted responsibility for trying to live up to them.

These suggestions emphasize over and over again the importance of thorough discussion with children of the kind of behavior that makes sense in a given activity. But understanding by children of what constitutes desirable behavior is not in and of itself enough. Understanding

must be accompanied by a willingness to try to do the right thing. Children sometimes become expert and glib in analyzing situations for appropriate conduct without, however, honest intention of living up to group agreements. Children are encouraged in this dishonest behavior by school situations in which repeated violations of agreements are followed merely by more discussion of the proper thing to do. When a child repeatedly violates agreements on standards of behavior which he understands, the time for discussion is past. Rather, the teacher must see that the child is appropriately punished. Teachers who are truly modern accept this responsibility.

Discipline and Teacher Personality. The teacher's own behavior is only one of the many factors which enter into the production or avoidance of problem behavior in children. Yet the personality of the teacher is the most important single factor in most classrooms in determining the quality of living that goes on there. As he expresses his personality in diverse ways, the teacher teaches self-discipline more by example than by any specific techniques. This does not imply that the teacher should attempt to control children by personal magnetism, to develop disciples who are just like him, or to make children dependent upon him. Rather, the teacher should hold democratic values which guide his own living; it is within the framework of these values that he should attempt to build understanding and allegiance on the part of the children. While your behavior may not, in a few months' time, cause deep and lasting changes in the children, the expressions of your personality will play a large part in determining the total atmosphere of your classroom.

Student teaching offers a major opportunity in your professional preparation for intensive study of the strengths and weaknesses of your personality as they are reflected in the behavior of a classroom group. There is no "perfect" teacher personality. There are, however, characteristics of teacher personality that seem to be essential for successful and hygienic disciplining of children. As you study yourself and your effect upon children, it is suggested that you should:

1. *Be yourself.* You cannot do better than to be your own best self. False dignity, sham, affectation, subterfuge, artificiality and unnatural imitation of others are readily perceived by children.

2. *Give evidence of possessing a sense of humor.* A sense of humor is obviously one of the most essential traits of teachers who are successful with handling problem behavior and difficult group situations. If you make a fool of yourself, admit it and be willing to laugh with the children about it. Self-directed humor is completely disarming and will not cause children to respect you less.

3. *Be friendly but not familiar with children.* You cannot be too friendly with children. But you are an adult leader and your relationship with a child should include a kind of respect that is absent from the familiar child-to-child relationship.

4. *Reflect democratic respect and concern for all of the children.* Children vary greatly in personal attractiveness. You must guard against showing favoritism in any form or becoming emotionally antagonistic toward certain children.

5. *Show willingness to help children with their problems without assuming responsibility in a personal way.* Children should not be motivated to change their behavior primarily to please the teacher. The child who continually asks the teacher, "Is this what you want me to do?" is not learning to discipline himself. As the teacher helps children to stand on their own, he avoids worry about their problems in order to remain a desirable person for children to live with.

6. *Convey to children a general expectancy on your part that they will do the right thing.* Children have a tendency to adjust to adults' opinions of them. It is far better to give children "benefit of the doubt" than to be negatively suspicious of their motives and their actions.

7. *Accept children on their own standards and values.* Children must live in accordance with their own values and strive for their own childlike goals. The imposition of adult standards creates a barrier to understanding and is emotionally unhealthy. The teacher begins with children where they are and leads them gradually to accept higher standards and values.

8. *Avoid love relationships with children.* Children whose behavior is undesirable are often suffering from lack of satisfactory love relationships in the home. The teacher should feel and show affection for children and help them feel wanted. But he cannot supply the needed love. The close ties of the love relationship are impossible with large numbers of children. Furthermore, the temporary character of the relationship between teacher and the child would mean potential emotional difficulty for each.

9. *Avoid being dominating.* Domination on the part of the teacher invites docile, conforming, unthinking reactions in children. It effectively blocks growth in self-discipline. It causes frustrations which have their outlets in undesirable behavior when the teacher is absent.

10. *Avoid self-righteous indignation.* Acting shocked, horrified, outraged, or righteously indignant will not contribute to desirable behavior changes in children. Such reactions on the part of the teacher indicate hypersensitivity or lack of experience, especially when differences of social background and manners are involved.

11. *Avoid over-emphasis of particular patterns of behavior.* In working with children, teachers must avoid making fetishes of the use of alcohol, tobacco, or chewing gum; slang and profanity; classical music; religious dogma; courtesy; cleanliness; and the like. Imposition of one's own particular adult biases is emotionally unhealthy for children. Furthermore, this is another form of the imposition of adult standards to child life.

12. *Avoid a martyr complex.* An obvious air of suffering because you "love" the children so much that their conduct "hurts" you is immature behavior. Being provoked with children because you have "worked so hard" and they do not "appreciate" your efforts is another form of the martyr complex.

13. *Avoid erroneous estimates of children's maturity.* When the democratic way seems slow and inefficient, you may be tempted to fall into authoritarian patterns of behavior through rationalization that the children are not mature enough to make important decisions. On the other hand, at times, you will

need realistically to recognize when you are asking children to meet behavior standards which are well above their developmental levels.

14. *Avoid holding "old scores" and grudges.* Children need and want to face the consequences of their behavior and "clean the slate."

15. *Be cautious in exacting promises and pledges.* Such a procedure is an imposition of teacher personality, particularly when the child is reminded of his contract from time to time. The promise or pledge often sets up too tough a standard for the young child and fails to allow for normal regressions.

16. *Avoid threats to children.* Whether conveyed through voice or gesture, the threat is destructive. The teacher who uses it is assuming personal responsibility for the child's behavior. When children are threatened, they are directed to change their behavior because of fear of the teacher. Furthermore, the teacher places himself in the sometimes embarrassing position of having to enforce the threatened punishment.

17. *Avoid over-verbalization.* Continual talking by the teacher is a powerful form of domination. Performed in a kindly way, it discourages thought and expression in children. Employed sadistically, it results in vicious practices of habitual scolding, blaming, nagging, and ridiculing.

18. *Avoid making too much of small things.* You will have to decide for yourself what is "big" and what is "small." If you treat all types of undesirable behavior as equal in importance, your influence in modifying seriously undesirable behavior will be lessened. Children cannot rise to "crises" that occur at frequent intervals.

19. *Be consistent.* Try to avoid emotional fluctuations through which you appear to children to be gay or sad, strict or lenient, with no apparent relationship to their behavior. You must try to keep from transferring to the children the personal problems that cause you to be worried, unhappy, or tired. Children have considerable need for regularity and predictability in their expectations. But consistency itself must be qualified. It is not better to be consistent in doing the wrong thing than to change one's decision.

20. *Show confidence in yourself.* Children need the security of an adult leader who acts as though he knows what he is doing and is equal to doing it. Without being "cocky" or "over-confident," you will do well to give children the impression that you are capable of being a full-fledged teacher.

One might well develop an "inferiority complex" in attempting to analyze himself with all of these suggestions in mind. These suggestions, however, are offered only to help you improve. No teacher ever completely lives up to all of them. Relax and do the best you can in making yourself the kind of person who lives well with children. At this stage in your professional growth you undoubtedly know more about children and how to work with them than you think you do.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

Since discipline is always a continuing concern of the teacher, to learn to be effective in guiding children toward self-discipline will be a major goal during your student teaching. The following evaluative criteria are suggested to help you:

1. *The Meaning of Discipline:*

In what ways is your understanding of a modern concept of discipline changing? What do you now consider to be a working definition of discipline? What is the primary source of discipline in your classroom? Analyze recent incidents in which you used your authority in a direct manner to control the group, answering the question, "Did I use my authority in the interest of the group and the success of the on-going enterprise?"

2. *Using a Modern Concept of Discipline:*

Specifically, how has your understanding of the relationship between discipline and basic needs influenced your guidance of children? To what extent do the children in your group have desirable freedom in their school activities? What evidences are you observing in your group of growth in the ability and disposition to use freedom wisely? Review those situations in which you have imposed punishments on children, asking the question, "Was the imposed punishment appropriately related to the undesirable behavior?" What are your present plans for improving your use of a modern concept of discipline?

3. *Discipline as Guidance:*

What specific evidence can you offer of your growth in the ability to understand the behavior of individual children? Through what types of activities have children revealed themselves to you? What general conditions in your classroom cause group disruptions? What are you doing about them? Is a particular child repeatedly causing group disruptions? If so, what are you doing for him?

What evidence can you offer that your children are having frequent experiences in analyzing the kinds of behavior needed in specific types of situations? In establishing standards of behavior for these situations? In evaluating their behavior in terms of these standards?

What are your chief personality strengths for guiding children in self-discipline? What are your plans for doing something about your personality weaknesses? In general, how has your total discipline situation improved?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. In placement interviews, superintendents of schools frequently ask the prospective teacher, "What methods of disciplining children do you expect to use?" If this question, or a similar one, is directed to you, how do you propose to answer it?

2. Corporal punishment is still used in some elementary schools today, often with the principal administering the whipping. Suppose that your first teaching position is in such a school. Suppose, further, that in a faculty meeting you are asked to state your opinions about corporal punishment in the school. What would you say?

3. One experienced teacher said, "Modern methods of developing self-direction work fine for a group of twenty-five children but when you have more than forty the teacher must make the rules and see to it that the children obey them." What are your reactions to this statement?

4. One teacher of nine-year-olds stated, "My children do not want to discuss appropriate behavior in various situations. They want me to tell them what to do." What might explain this situation?

5. The following statements appeared in children's accumulative records: "Della is a mischievous, restless child," "Everett frequently steals," "Oscar is a nice, quiet boy who never causes any trouble." What leads would these comments give you for further study of these children? What clues do the statements provide for guiding these children in self-discipline?

6. At the end of the chapter twenty suggestions are made for effective teacher personality in guiding children to self-discipline. Select the five which seem most important to you and be prepared to defend your choices.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Association for Childhood Education, *Discipline, An Interpretation* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1944).

This pamphlet contains seven pertinent articles on discipline for children of elementary-school age. It is readable and professionally sound.

Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1945).

This entire volume will be useful to the student teacher who is attempting to learn better how to study children. Chapter I, "What It Means to Understand Children," Chapter II, "Learning to Describe Behavior," and Chapter III, "Seeing the Child as a Member of a Family" will be especially helpful.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Mental Health in the Classroom, 1941 Yearbook* (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1941).

This is one of the most important yearbooks of this leadership group. Section 2, "Living and Growing in Wholesome Schools," will be rewarding reading for the student teacher.

DEWEY, John, *Experience and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1938).

This little book is a clear and succinct statement on modern education by one of our greatest educational philosophers. In relation to discipline, Chapter IV, "Social Control," and Chapter V, "The Nature of Freedom," are most helpful.

GETSELL, Arnold, and LUC, Frances L., *The Child From Five to Ten* (New York, Harper and Bros., 1946).

You are directed particularly to those sections which are descriptive of normal behavior of children at the age level of your group. The book should probably be used as a reference book rather than read from cover to cover.

HOCKETT, John A. and JACOBSEN, E. W., *Modern Practices in the Elementary School* (Boston, Ginn and Company, 1943).

"Making Discipline Educative," Chapter VII, is a simply written, practical discussion of the rôle of the teacher in guiding children toward self-discipline.

JEROLD, Arthur T., et al, *Child Development and the Curriculum* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946).

Recent research on child development is presented in a style which is easily read. Chapter V, "The Elementary School Child," is especially recommended.

MACOMBER, F. G., *Guiding Child Development in the Elementary School* (New York, American Book Company, 1931).

Chapter X, "Classroom Management and Pupil Control," contains a practical discussion of some of the dilemmas of the teacher in problems of discipline.

SHEVIAKOV, George V. and REHL, Fritz, *Discipline for Today's Children and Youth* (Washington, D. C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, 1944).

This pamphlet is "must" reading for student teachers who are searching for the meaning of modern discipline and practical guides for classroom practice.

SYMONDS, Percival M., *Mental Hygiene of the School Child* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1934).

One of the older references, this book has a modern point of view. It reads easily and contains many practical suggestions for the student teacher.

Worfford, Kate, *Teaching in Small Schools* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1946).

This book is written for beginning teachers in schools with six teachers or less. Chapter VII, "Controlling Group Living," includes many practical suggestions and illustrations.

CHAPTER VIII

Evaluating Your Work

As a student teacher you find yourself in a situation which impels self-appraisal. You are testing your understandings, exercising your abilities, and applying your strengths. If, during the process, you can identify your strengths and weaknesses as well, you will be helped in increasing your insight into the total effects of the techniques, processes, and materials you employ in teaching. Your learning of what you have studied in general education and through your professional courses is not complete until you have determined how effectively you can apply your knowledge and understanding. This appraisal involves consideration of the quality of the total educative experiences of the children with whom you are working. Just as "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," the student-teaching experience provides the first major test of your mastery of teaching at the elementary-school level.

Your concern with evaluation may be summarized simply through the asking of two basic questions. First, is your work helping children to develop in the most desirable directions? To answer that question you need to discover the attitudes, interests, abilities, and needs of children, the progress they are making through their educational experiences, and their needs for further help. Second, are you developing into the kind of teacher needed in modern elementary-school programs? Before you can answer that question you will wish to gauge your own success, appraise your growth, and analyze your needs for further improvement. As sources of appraisal of your growth and that of children, you will use all available evidence of the children's development, techniques of rating, and other judgments of your own advancement in professional competence.

The purpose of this chapter is to give assistance with the problems of evaluation, especially as they affect your work and progress in student teaching. First, you will need to explore further what evaluation means. Second, you will need to understand techniques of helping children with their self-evaluations. Third, you will need some guidance in leading group evaluations. Finally, you will need to be skillful in your own evaluations of children's work. To help you with these problems, recent developments and trends are explained, techniques and procedures are

discussed, and practical suggestions are given to aid you in the evaluative phases of your work.

THE MEANING OF EVALUATION

If the purpose of education is to effect desirable changes in human behavior, means are needed for determining the direction of change, the rate of change, and the extent of the changes made. Since teachers do not attain perfection, they are never completely satisfied with their present accomplishments or their techniques for making improvement. By identifying, stating, and analyzing their goals and their work toward achieving those goals, they continually find means of improvement. The more teachers can learn about the results of their present practices, the more effective will be the changes they make. The determination of the changes effected as a result of school experiences is now generally termed "evaluation."

A Definition of Evaluation. The process of determining the extent to which values are achieved, purposes carried out, and goals reached is evaluation. The term is derived from the word "value," since the appraisal of the effectiveness of educative experiences should be based upon a consistent, sound, democratic system of values. Evaluation includes analysis of the purposes themselves and consideration of the techniques by which goals are attained, as well as the degree of achievement. To say it in other words, one asks: *Is this good? Are we working at it in an intelligent manner? Are we getting the job done?*

The evaluator considers the process of teaching and learning as well as its products; attitudes and appreciations as well as facts and skills. He collects, summarizes, and judges evidence within the framework of what he is trying to teach and with constant reference to the consistency with which values are being followed. This professional framework includes the purposes of the school, the student teacher's relationships with other teachers, and the confidential use of information about children. The results of evaluation furnish answers to the questions: *How successful is my program of teaching? What progress am I making? To what extent should I change my goals? In what way should I modify my teaching practices?*

Comparison of Evaluation with Measurement. Educational research is only approximately fifty years old. The first thirty years, beginning with Rice's famous study of spelling in 1897 and the "Binet 1908 Scale of Intelligence," were devoted almost entirely to measurement of intelligence quotients and specific subject-matter within the narrow academic curriculum of that period. In schools the term "measurement" became synonymous with "testing."

All measurement is a process of applying standardized units to unknown quantities. The standardized unit is the measuring instrument, whether scale, yardstick, or test. The measure, or test result, is the number of times the unit is contained in the quantity. An example is the weighing of a child. The test is the weight and the unit of the test is the pound. The test is applied by placing the child on the scales. After the child is weighed the teacher may state that he weighs seventy-six pounds. That result or measure, however, gives no information as to whether the child is well-coördinated or awkward, slim or stout, healthily developed or diseased, well-fed or undernourished.

Measurement in education developed as a result of emphasis upon academic skills and knowledge. Standardized achievement and intelligence tests were made in greater quantities to meet that demand. These mechanical instruments were assumed to be accurate devices for determining variations in the abilities of children and indicating the proper placement of children in the graded school. The original purposes of objective measurement were to find the intellectual power of children and differences between them as bases for guidance in adjusting the school program to the abilities of each child.

Unfortunately, several vicious practices in the uses of measurement developed. Unfair, unwholesome competition of individual against individual was encouraged. The individual child was looked at narrowly in terms of mere test scores—sometimes from only a single test. Unjustified comparisons were made between groups of children with widely different backgrounds and potentialities. While this had negative effects on individuals and groups within a given school, it had even worse effects when one school was compared with another. Test results were widely used to appraise the quality of the entire school program and even to judge the effectiveness of individual teachers.

This emphasis on scores made by children on standardized tests had a strong influence on the development of the educational program. Teachers, realizing that their success and that of their pupils would be judged by scores made on such tests, tended to limit their teaching to drill on the textbook materials emphasized by the tests. Children were encouraged to memorize "verbal knowledge" because the tests were based on abstract verbalizations rather than upon comprehension and application.

Gradually school people came to realize that, while measurements of intelligence and achievement may be useful, they are good only for the specific items and the abilities that they measure and are not valid when carried beyond their limitations. Since approximately 1930, increasing attention has been given to the appraisal of the total development of the child. As the programs of elementary schools have been broadened and



City of New York, Public Schools

"Guiding children toward self-discipline makes sense to me."

City of New York, Public Schools





Campus School, East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, N. C.

"Evaluation is important to children. I found that boys and girls are keen critics of their own work."



Oklahoma City, Okla., Public Schools



Battle Creek, Mich., Public Schools

"The children had tremendous respect for the learning materials they created."

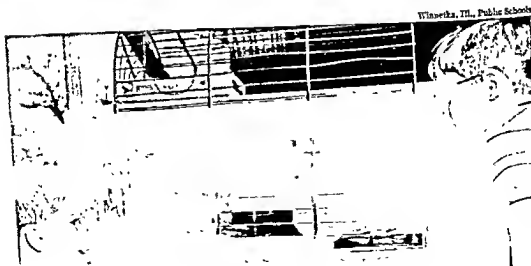
Detroit, Mich., Public Schools





Winnetka, Ill., Public Schools

"The children brought valuable learning materials to our classroom."



Winnetka, Ill., Public Schools

enriched, those aspects of development not measured by achievement and intelligence tests have attained greater significance. Attitudes and habits which enable children to work well with others, understanding and appreciation of the contributions of others, ingenuity and originality in creative self-expression, artistic and mechanical abilities in producing materials, initiative and self-reliance in difficult tasks are increasingly recognized as essential. Such broader purposes require different techniques of appraisal.

Measurement has been limited to information which may be expressed in numerical or quantitative terms. For more effective direction of educative efforts and child guidance, evaluation makes use of all obtainable information related to the achievement of worthwhile educational goals. Evaluation includes the acceptable techniques and instruments of measurement but is more than measurement. While assuming the need to know the extent of information and skills, evaluation is more concerned with questions of purposes and goals. "What educational values are being emphasized?" and "What socially desirable goals are being achieved?" are the basic questions. The emphasis on values and valuing most clearly marks the difference between measurement and evaluation.

Relating Your Procedures to Purposes. Objectives give direction to the activities of teaching and learning. Therefore, since the purpose of evaluation is to appraise progress toward goals, the objectives guiding the educational program must be studied. Before evaluative techniques and instruments can be selected, there must be general agreement upon the objectives the school is to achieve. The school in which you are working has objectives, whether or not they are formally stated.

Objectives recognized as desirable are similar in most modern elementary schools. However, the emphasis varies from school to school. You may find it useful to compare a set of widely accepted objectives with those of the school in which you are working. The statement of "Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education," issued by the New York State Department of Education in 1931, has been generally approved and accepted. Many teachers attach especial significance to the order in which the objectives were stated. The report states that the cardinal objectives of the public elementary schools are to help every child to:

1. Understand and practice desirable social relationships.
2. Discover and develop his own individual aptitudes.
3. Cultivate the habit of critical thinking.
4. Appreciate and desire worth while activities.
5. Gain command of common integrating knowledges and skills.
6. Develop a sound body and normal mental attitudes.

After you have studied these objectives, you will see that your procedures in evaluation must be consistent with all of the educational values

sought through the teaching process. Democratic teaching cannot be evaluated by autocratic procedures. If stated purposes are to be more than a verbal sham, there must be a consistent relationship between the purposes of learning activities, the techniques selected to appraise progress, and the procedures followed in applying the techniques. That children differ, situations differ, and emphases upon objectives change are not excuses for undemocratic procedures in appraisal. For example, if children have developed interest in and accepted their share of responsibility for certain work such as learning about the industries of their state, it is a violation of educational values for the teacher to apply autocratically a test of his own choosing, sit in sole judgment, and assign marks or grades. Other examples of autocratic appraisal may be observed in policies such as promotion on the basis of reading progress alone, the assignment of competitive grades on report cards to children who are learning to work coöperatively for common goals, and arbitrary teacher reversal of group decisions because they are not "good enough."

Evaluative techniques are developed in terms of purposes accepted as important goals and are in agreement with procedures of teaching in use. You need to select carefully those techniques for collecting evidence to determine the extent to which each objective is being achieved. If instruments are not readily available for appraising certain objectives, you may adapt or revise substitutes and devise workable instruments of your own. You may face a temptation to overemphasize objectives in areas which seem easily evaluated and in which some kinds of progress may be readily shown. That temptation must be resisted if your procedures in evaluating—which are themselves teaching—are not to violate other more important purposes.

Steps Involved in Evaluation. The close interrelationships between purposes, procedures, and techniques may clearly be seen in the following outline of stages normally followed by a teacher in evaluating his work. You will find it useful to consult this outline as a basis for planning your own evaluative activities.

1. *State the objective.* (What are we trying to do?) The purpose or goal should be stated to include progress toward the objective as well as final achievement of it. For example, if the larger goal is "Wholesome social adjustment," this may mean "slightly improved attitude toward school by the middle of the semester," in the case of a certain child.

2. *Define the objective in terms of behavior.* (For what kind of actions and responses are we looking?) The objective should be translated into operational terms—the way people act when they have achieved the objective. For example, lending, sharing, helping, playing with others may be actions indicating achievement of the objective of "Wholesome social adjustment."

3. *Identify situations in which the behavior may occur.* (Where may we observe the actions and responses?) The times, places, and circumstances

where children may display the defined behavior are determined. For example, "When, where, and how may children show social understanding and adjustment by lending, sharing, helping, and playing with others?"

4. *Collect evidence of the behavior.* (How may we observe, gather, and make records of the outward signs of actions and responses?) Appropriate instruments and techniques are selected and applied, the data collected and recorded, and all information organized and analyzed. For example, to collect and record evidence of behavior showing quality of social adjustment, an attitudes inventory, a behavior-rating scale, a self-marking test, a sociogram, and anecdotal records may be used at various times. The data secured by these several means must then be studied. "How many opportunities did the child have to display his social adjustments? How often and under what circumstances was he aloof, selfish, aggressive? How frequently and in what spirit did he cooperate or share?"

5. *Interpret the evidence in terms of the objective.* (What do these outward signs tell us?) The extent to which the child has reached the objective must be determined. This is primarily a valuing process, since the conclusions can be no sounder than the teacher's judgments involved in reaching them. "What progress has the child made in improving his social adjustment: In comparison with his earlier actions? In terms of his environmental background? In the light of indications of further improvement? What is 'successful achievement' of the objective 'Wholesome social adjustment' for this particular child?"

6. *Modify practices on the basis of the appraisal.* (What should we be doing differently and how should we change?) The behavior samples collected will reveal needs for changing the educational environment to modify further the behavior toward the desired goal. Teaching practices will be altered for improved progress toward the objective. For example, it may be found desirable to increase the sharing period, to provide more real opportunities for children to share ideas and accept responsibility, to emphasize cooperation during the work period, to arrange committee work so that certain children may have greater opportunity to observe and practice desirable social relationships, or to provide appropriate reading material illustrative of the objective and of typical weaknesses in achieving it. In some cases the objective of "wholesome social adjustment" will require the teacher to reexamine his own personality and classroom management.

Characteristics of a Modern Evaluation Program. It should be clear that a program of evaluation is broader than a plan of testing limited to determining marks to be assigned, grade grouping, and promotion. A sound modern program of evaluation may be identified by the characteristics presented here. A modern program of evaluation is:

1. *Consistent with accepted educational objectives.* Practices in evaluating do not ignore or violate one objective in overemphasizing another, but harmonize with all sound goals.
2. *Democratic in providing for participation by all concerned.* Children being evaluated have a share in determining objectives, selecting techniques of appraisal, and interpreting results.
3. *Continuous throughout the child's years in school.* Appraisal of development is cumulative throughout the child's career in school, week to week, month to month, year to year.

4. *Integral with teaching.* Evaluation is a daily, even hourly, occurrence—a continuous activity representing a vital aspect of the teaching process—rather than being limited to periodic emphases such as end-of-month or semester tests.
5. *Comprehensive in treatment of all phases of child development.* Attention is given to attitudes, habits, understandings, and appreciations; to physical welfare and social adjustment; to ideals and aspirations; to factual information and skills.
6. *Flexible in the selection and use of an appropriate variety of techniques.* Means of appraisal are not limited to paper-and-pencil tests, check lists, and rating scales but include all appropriate means of collecting information needed. Moreover, the appropriateness is determined by the differing characteristics of individuals and groups of children.
7. *Descriptive in terms of desired behavior.* The actions of children which represent their achievement of objectives must be clearly identified. Everyone concerned must be clear as to his goals. Descriptions of behavior are simple, clear, and as complete as possible.
8. *Specific with reference to desirable teacher objectives and the appropriate abilities and interests of children.* The chief concern is with progress in the all-around development of children rather than with status in comparison with an abstract "average child" or the "passing" of artificial hurdles.
9. *Good for the children whose behavior is being appraised.* The procedures, techniques, and instruments used in the program of evaluation themselves contribute to the educative process. There is simply no justification for evaluative procedures that are unfair, negative, or destructive in their total educative effect. Above all, the child must be permitted to keep his self-respect.

EVALUATION BY THE GROUP

Testing, measuring, and even evaluating are frequently misused as processes in which one person or group merely checks on another person or group, using techniques and standards without reference to the needs or purposes of the individual or group judged. To achieve the best educational results—in process as well as product—evaluation should be a coöperative enterprise. Your thought and work in securing the interested efforts of all of the children in appraising their progress will yield worthwhile results in developing a sense of accomplishment and in setting realistic goals.

Goals for Consideration by the Group. Within the limits of their maturity and understanding, groups of children may examine and discuss any objectives worthy of their efforts. With very young children you will emphasize immediate goals such as writing their names, preparing an experience-reading chart, or taking a trip around the block to study the leaves. Groups of older children may also consider such long-range goals as improving the audience situation in assembly programs, making a mural depicting the westward migration, or mastering common frac-

recognized success by pointing out specific goals which the group has achieved. The contributions of all members of the group must be recognized if feelings of friendliness, security in group membership, and coöperation are to be furthered. Through tactful leadership, you can encourage the group to recognize that it has a real share in determining its progress. Thus the group will provide its own dynamic drives toward evaluation.

Techniques of Group Evaluation. To some extent, the techniques you may use in evaluations by the group are determined by the program in which you are doing your student teaching. If you have a planning period in your daily schedule, an effective approach to group evaluation is through group discussion of goals, review of progress already made toward them, and consideration of further work needing to be done. If you have no planning period, group evaluation may take place within the times assigned to the various subjects.

You do not need to use complicated procedures or technical instruments for group appraisal. In fact, the more simple and straightforward the techniques, the more useful group judgments will be. You have already recognized the importance of allowing the group to suggest, consider, and select the means by which they evaluate their progress. A list of the most readily available and useful techniques for group evaluation is presented as a starting point:

1. *General group discussion.* What have we been working toward? What have we done in that direction? How well have we done our work? In what ways could we do it better? What other work do we need to do to finish the job? In view of what we have done, what do we need to work on next?

2. *Group analysis of specific work accomplished.* How are our reports and outlines improving? Does our mural show what we want it to show? What can we conclude from our week's trial of new rules for discussion groups? Did the committee on engines tell us all we wanted to know? What did each committee accomplish today? Is our thank-you note to Mr. Jones written well enough to send? What evidence have we gathered as to why white men first settled in our community?

3. *Group use of check lists, inventories, and rating scales.* Shall we go on using the check lists and scales that we are using now? What kinds of check lists can we make that will tell us how well we are doing with our skills? Our work habits? Our behavior in specific situations? What items shall we put in these check lists? Will check lists help us to take inventory of our health habits? Our free reading? Our socially useful work? What rating scales, inventories, and check lists that the teacher has brought in for us to consider do we want to use in our group? Do we need to modify any of them for our use?

4. *Group use of results from tests and measurements of achievement and growth.* What do the results of the test that our teacher made tell us about how well we are doing? In what respects do we need to work harder? In what phases of our work did we do best? Was the test that we made with the teacher a good one? How can we make a better test next time? Did the standardized achievement test tell us anything important about our work?

Our work habits? Was this achievement test fair to us? What can we do about the results of our physical examinations? To what extent do the results of these tests and measurements help us to know how well we are getting along? Point out our weaknesses? Suggest what to do next?

Group Evaluation of Its Individual Members. A large part of group evaluation is directed toward appraising the work of individuals. As the children review their group enterprises and analyze the strengths and weaknesses of their work, actually they also evaluate the individuals who contributed or were responsible for various parts of the work. For example, in a study of community helpers, the group may decide to draw pictures of policemen or firemen, to make glass slides showing the police station or the firehouse, and to write reports of what each of these helpers does for the community. In evaluating their work on the topic, the group will look at the pictures individual children have painted, examine critically the various slides, and read or listen to the reports individuals have written. In these cases a child may present his part of the group enterprise to the class, displaying a picture, explaining his slides, or reading a report that he has prepared.

In such cases the group is, in effect, judging the contribution of the individual to the group. The judgments of children inexperienced in evaluation frequently tend to be negative. Many children find that the critical judgments of their peers are difficult to accept. Such children need your encouragement and support. They need the confidence which comes from certainty that they have made a contribution to the group and that the group appreciates their work. These children also need experience in accepting and applying constructive criticisms by their peers.

Children are sometimes brutally frank and sharply destructive in their judgments of the work of others. If the classroom group contains scapegoats or rejects, ridicule may be directed toward their contributions. Your tact will be needed to temper such remarks. You will need to guide the group in appreciation of small gains made by the less mature children. You will also need actively to stimulate objective criticism of the work of group leaders whose contributions otherwise may be accepted simply because they are leaders rather than because of the quality of their work. The group evaluations of the work of individual children must be directed toward the improvement of the relations among the members of the group, the development of realistic self-confidence by individual children, the expression of mature, balanced judgments, and the setting of appropriate standards of group behavior. Frequently the teacher will need to redirect negative criticisms in such ways that individual children understand constructively the suggestions made, accept the suggestions for improvement, and gain in ability to utilize realistic criticisms of their work.

Teacher Guidance of Group Evaluation. "Starting where children are"

may sound trite, but it is essential in developing useful group evaluation. Groups who have never experienced freedom of choice or had opportunity to appraise their progress must be guided toward competence in these activities. You will need to determine the present abilities of your group in self-evaluation. If the children have had limited experience in group appraisal of their work, it will be wise to introduce group evaluation with simple choices and easily-used techniques. With more experienced groups, you will be able to introduce techniques which they have not used, widen their choices of techniques, and help them improve the means of evaluation they are now using.

You must first convince the children that you are their friend, guide, and co-worker, rather than their taskmaster or judge. However uncertain, or even unsound, the group's first judgments, they should be accepted if you hope to build the children's confidence in your integrity. You may further build children's assurance in their ability to make appraisals if you do not ask them to perform beyond their abilities and to appraise beyond their insights and understandings. From early, uncertain evaluations, the group may then be guided into more mature and realistic judgments.

The complexity and time-span of activities, the scope of problems or topics, the types of needs which groups of children may profitably consider are related to their previous school experiences as well as to their levels of maturity and understanding. Careful attention to the children's critical comments and to the quality of work which satisfies them will give you important clues to your rôle as leader. Whether or not group evaluation is an educative experience depends largely upon your guidance of the group in determining the levels of its self-appraisal.

EVALUATION BY INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN

In past educational practice much of the teacher's time was devoted to evaluating children's progress toward goals set by adults. Considerably less emphasis was given to helping children develop competence in self-appraisal. A major purpose of education in the modern elementary school is the development of ability to make accurate self-evaluation. Such ability promotes competence in making wise decisions and lends stability in carrying them out. Helping each child to improve his ability in recognizing his own strengths and weaknesses is an important part of your work.

Bases for Children's Self-evaluation. Children's self-evaluation is based primarily on the application of democratic values. Children must accept responsibility for working toward goals which they can see and understand. They must accept responsibility for judging their progress. They must also accept responsibility for appraising the manner in and through which their progress is achieved. In other words, teachers cannot arbi-

trarily impose tasks, select topics, and assign lessons and then expect children to take part eagerly in evaluating themselves or to accept responsibility for evaluations made of them. On the contrary, such practices may cause children to lose respect for their school enterprises and to develop a "get by" attitude.

The very nature of the learning process itself is a basis for children's self-evaluation. In a real sense learning and self-appraisal go hand-in-hand. Only through appraisal of past experience can the child ready himself for facing unique situations and attacking new problems. Without self-appraisal one can hardly say that the child has learned. As a child plans, acts, and evaluates, he is reconstructing his experiences—and thus learning.

The maturity level of the child is still another basis for self-evaluation. A young or immature child may not have the experience necessary to understand clearly the relationships between his abilities and his achievements. He may not have perspective on the quality of work he may normally be expected to achieve or on the effectiveness of his efforts when compared with those of other children. As the child matures, his self-analyses become more penetrating. You will need to determine the maturity level of each child as you help him appraise his progress. This involves consideration of ability and accomplishment. What constitutes "good work" for Tommy? How much should he expect of himself? Satisfactory growth is not an absolute standard but a relative index, the relationship between ability possessed and progress made.

Practical application of these bases for children's self-appraisal implies that each child will:

1. Have a share in deciding his school activities.
2. Have opportunity to select individual work that is useful and enjoyable to him.
3. Accept responsibility for self-improvement.
4. Acquire perspective on his ability and the quality of his work.
5. Develop satisfactory standards of behavior for himself.
6. Gain a sense of achievement and progress through self-analysis.

Aspects of Growth the Child May Appraise. You have already become aware of the wide variation in the aspects of development which individual children recognize as important. To one, gaining recognition and developing a wide circle of friends may be primary goals. To another, learning to shoot marbles, play ball, or ride a bicycle may be a desirable objective. For a third, a symbol of development eagerly sought may be obtaining high marks or a perfect attendance record. The specific goals considered important by individual children are influenced by many factors such as social-emotional maturity, intelligence, home environment, school curriculum, teaching procedures. The significant consideration is that you recognize that children do have goals of their own. Those goals

may be encouraged and other more worthwhile goals may be developed through them.

Within the limits indicated above, children at all grade levels are able to participate in appraising their development in relation to: understanding and practicing desirable social relationships; discovering and developing individual aptitudes; cultivating habits of critical thinking; appreciating and desiring worthwhile activities; gaining command of common integrating knowledges and skills; and developing a sound body and normal mental attitudes.

Techniques for Individual Evaluation by Children. Wide varieties of means by which a child may appraise his development are available. Which ones are suggested and selected for children's use depends upon the aspects of growth being emphasized by the school, the time available for children's self-appraisal, the maturity level of the children, and the uses made of children's individual judgments. For convenience, two broad classifications may be made: techniques which the child may use by himself with little or no assistance; those which the teacher and the child may use together.

The child may keep evidence of work done, of things he needs to do, and of his progress in meeting his needs. Examples of these aspects of self-evaluation might well include the following techniques:

1. Keeping a diary of his activities
2. Preserving samples of his work
3. Comparing recent achievement (objects made, papers written, scores on tests, and so on) with records of earlier achievement
4. Recording goals met and weaknesses overcome
5. Rating himself on appropriate check lists at intervals of time
6. Listing his needs to be met and weaknesses to be overcome
7. Listing his special interests, resources, and strengths
8. Keeping a "progress account" in which he balances his successes against his failures, strengths against weaknesses, and so on
9. Maintaining his cumulative record folder up-to-date (except for confidential material).

The child and teacher together may use techniques such as these:

1. Considering ways in which the child helped others
2. Analyzing activities in which the child took part
3. Comparing work done with plans made
4. Comparing achievements with goals accepted
5. Examining comparable samples of work done at various times
6. Studying evaluative records kept by the teacher
7. Inventorying weaknesses which need correction
8. Agreeing that progress has been made in various aspects of growth
9. Examining realistically the child's aspiration levels in comparison with the most ambitious goals which the child may reasonably achieve
10. Agreeing upon new goals and next steps of progress.

Guiding Children's Self-appraisal. It is important to remember that the child's appraisal of his progress is continuous, even though it is not made public. He judges his height, his strength and dexterity, his popularity, his knowledge and skills by some criteria. If the child's self-appraisals are to be a constructive influence on his development, they must be sound, balanced judgments. The level of any child's standards and the quality of his self-appraisal are influenced by his drive toward the objectives which are paramount to him. Often the child is pressured to accept as his measures those set by the teacher, by his classmates or friends, or by his parents. If these standards are too high, the insecure child protects himself by withdrawing, "going out of the field," disavowing the standards, pretending indifference, or even by behaving in an outwardly aggressive manner. On the other hand, the well-balanced child realistically revises the standards.

Many of the techniques the children use for individual evaluations may be selected and developed in group situations. For example, the group may decide to keep diaries or logs, maintain files of samples of their individual work, or keep cumulative records. The group may cooperatively develop check lists or rating scales for appraising their progress toward their goals. The various members of the group may then apply these instruments to themselves from time to time. The critic teacher will probably already be using some of these approaches. You will reach understandings with your critic teacher concerning the specific techniques which you will continue to employ and make agreements with him concerning those which you may introduce.

Personal conferences are your most effective means of guiding children to accept purposes of their own, set goals which they can meet, and judge their progress objectively. Such conferences may be held before school begins in the morning, during various free periods, independent work periods, recesses, or after school in the afternoon. It may be possible to schedule a weekly "conference hour" for your evaluative conferences with individual children, after working out the details with your critic teacher.

A good place to begin is with an immediate problem which the child recognizes such as remaining unchosen for a team, being unable to saw a straight line, or being unable to recognize certain words in reading. Another way to begin might be through personal interests and hobbies such as stamp collecting, model making, or drawing. Still another approach might be through consideration of desired goals—owning a doll or a bag of marbles, making more friends, or increasing proficiency in academic skills. Through sympathetic but frank discussion, the child must be led to understand the causes of his problem and specific means of overcoming it; to select improved ways of advancing his interests and hobbies;

to plan definite means of attaining his desired goal or to substitute a more realistic one. Further conferences to estimate progress will build habits of self-appraisal.

Once friendly relations have been established, you will find it easier to widen the area of the child's self-appraisal. You may tactfully introduce such a question as "What can you do to be accepted by more of the children in the group?" This should be followed by constructive analysis, in conversational fashion, of his belligerent attitudes, tendencies to dominate, sulk, and invent excuses. Your efforts are directed toward getting the child to recognize his need to change his behavior and to accept responsibility for improving. You may suggest that he try to remember specific illustrations of his sharing and helping, holding his temper, showing appreciation of the assistance of others. You will also agree to help by making observational notes and anecdotal records of his behavior in various situations and by having conferences with him from time to time to "take stock."

In another case, you may point out tactfully to a child that others in the group are not able to read his handwriting. This conclusion should be supported by specific illustrations. Through further conversation the child agrees to try to write more legibly. You may compliment him on that decision, give specific suggestions for improvement, offer encouragement, and agree to help him improve by saving samples of his handwriting at odd times. Further conferences should be planned to study his handwriting, to compare samples, and to judge progress.

EVALUATION BY THE STUDENT TEACHER

While you, as a student teacher, do not have final responsibility for appraising or rating the children with whom you are working, you are responsible for their development to the extent that you work with them. Also, you are preparing to assume the full responsibilities of a teacher. You realize that analyzing and appraising the many aspects of children's development constitutes a major phase of the teacher's work.

Aspects of Growth to Be Evaluated. The goals established by the faculty of the school in which you are working indicate the major emphases for your evaluations of progress. The process of evaluation should include examination of the extent to which all of the goals of the school are being achieved by each individual child as well as by the group. What is happening to the individual child must always have top priority. No matter what the specific goals of the school are, you should be certain to include the following major aspects of growth:

1. *Mental and physical health.* Are the children improving in emotional maturity and balance? Eliminating fears? Gaining confidence? Avoiding

- or overcoming diseases? *Having adequate nourishment?* Developing sound bodies?
2. *Social adjustment.* Are the children acquiring friends? Adapting themselves to group situations? Learning to cooperate with others? Developing social competence consistent with their ages, physical development, and mental abilities?
 3. *Purposes and activities.* What activities are the children engaging in as individuals and as groups? What purposes are being promoted through activities? Are the activities and purposes wholesome and well-balanced? Are the children growing toward better purposing?
 4. *Intelligence and readiness.* Are the children sufficiently mature, with regard to their intelligence and readiness, for the school experiences to which they are being exposed? Is a balance maintained between children's mental ages and the difficulty level of the work they are expected to do?
 5. *Quality of thinking.* Are children developing power and quality in their thinking? Is their thinking increasingly independent, critical, and discriminative? Are they learning to base judgments upon adequate information?
 6. *Individual aptitudes.* Does each child show evidences of developing special abilities and of establishing personal goals suitable to his competencies as an individual?
 7. *Integrative knowledge and skill.* To what extent do the children comprehend the material they study, organize it for use, and adapt it to their purposes?

Classifications of different aspects of growth are useful to the teacher only to give direction to special study of individual children or particular areas of curriculum experience. Such classification also facilitates organization of the information. In analyzing these various aspects of growth, it is important to keep in mind that each is not only important in itself, but is equally important in its relation to each of the other phases of growth. One of the continuing difficulties in evaluation is the tendency to appraise physical development, social development, and mental development as if each were separate and independent of the others. This procedure overlooks or ignores the basic fact that the child functions as a unit at all times and in all his activities. In interpreting the various factors of development, the interrelationships between them must be studied if you are to secure understanding of the wholeness of growth and see each child as a complete organic unit.

Evaluation at Different School Levels. The evaluative processes used by student teachers working in the kindergarten are essentially the same as those used by student teachers in the later-elementary grades. If the school's objectives are comprehensive and sound, the same fundamental educational and social values are sought at all levels.

The justifiable differences which occur in the evaluation programs for various grade levels are the result of differences in specific objectives. The selection of instruments, sources of evidence, and forms of reporting

judgments must be in terms of the specific objectives for a particular maturation level, as well as in terms of over-all objectives. The kindergarten teacher will be concerned with the development of friendly social attitudes, ability to work and play happily with others, the development of independence through improvement of physical coördination, the establishment of good eating habits, the acquisition of functional knowledge and skills, and the development of readiness for further learning experiences. Those working with children in the later-elementary grades are concerned with similar development on appropriately higher levels.

To collect evidence, those working with kindergarten children observe each child during story hour, in sharing period, around the lunch table, on the playground, and in other situations. They keep records of who plays with whom, of how adequately children listen and share with others, of what children eat, and of other useful information. They also collect anecdotes of how each child reacts to various activities. When the kindergarten teacher has collected, analyzed, and interpreted the evidence, he can summarize his judgments of the development and needs of each child. Those working with older children will record evidences of more mature behavior in a wider variety of situations and must consider the broader social orientation of the children as they explore more highly differentiated experiences. This process of differentiation may be observed in the progression from all-oral story telling by the children in the kindergarten, to the dictated stories in the early-elementary grades, to the individual story writing in the later-elementary grades. Thus an increasingly wider variety of techniques and instruments will be used by the teacher and the children, but their approach to evaluation will be the same.

In a broad program of evaluation the evaluator makes use of all sources of evidence—quantitative, qualitative, and descriptive; objective and subjective—which he finds useful in determining the extent to which goals are being achieved. You are, of course, making use of the children's cumulative records which the critic teacher has in his possession. Cumulative records, current results of the school's testing program, and the daily appraisals of progress provide a readily accessible source of information for your reference. However, you should supplement these sources, for you will want your student-teaching activities to provide you with an adequate background of experience in selecting, developing, and using appropriate means of securing information.

Securing Objective Data. The two major approaches to securing evaluative data are generally termed "objective" and "subjective." As you know, objective measures are so termed because such instruments enable the teacher to eliminate or reduce the effect of his personal, subjective opinions in collecting some evidence and appraising certain important

aspects of behavior. Objective measures are almost necessarily limited to standardized tests of achievement, standardized tests of intelligence, and physiological measurements. The term "standardized" means that the test items and norms of achievement are based upon the performance of large numbers of children in many schools. In this way the score of any individual child may be compared with the average scores as a "standard." Thus the teacher's opinions do not enter into the selection of items in the test, the interpretation of responses, or the determination of the final score.

Strict criteria should be applied in the selection of tests. You must use these criteria in determining what importance to attach to test scores already in the children's records. The factors most important in judging such tests are:

1. *Validity.* This means the "trueness" or soundness of the test. The accepted technical definition is "the degree to which the test measures what it is intended to measure." For example, reading ability should not influence a child's score on a test of computational achievement in arithmetic.

2. *Reliability.* This means the "trustworthiness" or consistency of the test. The generally used technical definition is "the degree to which a test measures whatever it does measure." For example, children of equal ability and effort should make approximately equal scores on the same test or the same child should make approximately equal scores on alternate forms of the test.

3. *Objectivity.* This means the "independence" from subjective judgment in scoring. The accepted technical definition is "the degree to which identical results occur from scoring by equally competent persons." For example, a given child's answers to a standardized test should yield the same score whether marked by you or by any of your fellow student teachers.

4. *Norms.* This means the averages of scores made by children of various ages or school grades. A dependable standardized test has been "standardized" upon scores of large numbers of children in many different schools. It should provide norms representing a true cross-section of children and schools.

5. *Alternate forms.* These are forms of equivalent format and difficulty. At least two and preferably four alternate or parallel forms should be available if the test is to be useful for measuring growth and is to be applied several times during the child's elementary-school career. A shift from one battery of tests to another makes it almost impossible to compare results, while repeated use of a single form allows a possibility of children learning the test items through repeated testing.

6. *Simplicity.* This refers to the structure and organization of the test. The test should be such that it is easily understood by children, otherwise scores will be unjustly low. The test should also be easy to administer and simple to score, with a clear, well-written manual of instructions.

Objective measures of achievement and intelligence have many limitations. Standardized tests can be applied only for subjects and aspects of learning that are mechanical and specific. To be "standardized," an achievement test must be restricted to "standardized" course-of-study or textbook material and to relatively uniform teaching procedures. The norms of

such tests are based upon the grade placement of topics, the textbooks used, and the instructional emphasis in the particular schools upon which it was standardized, at the time it was standardized. Test scores fail to indicate real achievement when grade-placements of topics change, when instructional materials are increased beyond single texts, and when instructional emphasis shifts from mechanical manipulation and memorized response to appreciation, understanding, and individual application. This reduction in validity means that such scores must be re-interpreted with reference to the current educational goals of your school and the specific objectives upon which the test was based. Thus evaluation must include consideration of grade achievements and norms. However, it is clear that in themselves grade norms are inconclusive evidence of progress.

It is not known with certainty, as yet, what abilities or functions are measured by intelligence tests. It is doubtful that "intelligence tests" do adequately measure general intelligence. For example, scores on such tests have almost a mere chance correlation with artistic and mechanical ability. Unfortunately, many teachers make unjustifiable assumptions as to the source of the child's IQ score, its permanency, and its significance for learning. You may find an IQ score on the permanent record cards of the children with whom you work. Before accepting such scores even as an approximation of the children's real intelligence, you must ascertain the source of the IQ score. The individual Binet is the most reliable source while the group test of intelligence is less reliable but is useful. Although frequently employed, the group achievement test which yields an IQ score through use of a conversion table is the least reliable source. In comparatively recent years the makers of some reading-readiness tests have provided conversion tables for translating reading-readiness scores into intelligence quotients. Tests of readiness for reading are helpful in adjusting school experiences to children's maturity. However, neither reading-readiness tests nor achievement tests are adequate measures of intelligence. When conversion tables are used and the results entered on the child's permanent record as an IQ score, the child is unjustly labeled with an intelligence rating of dubious validity.

Some recent research indicates that the environment in which children live has a marked influence upon their measurable intelligence. It has also been observed that high IQ scores do not necessarily indicate that high academic achievement will be made. In view of the unreliability and narrow scope of standardized achievement and intelligence test scores, you will need to be cautious in accepting them and judicious in applying them as means of appraising the progress of children. Several good tests should be given and the results compared before you may safely appraise progress by comparisons between achievement and intelligence or by set standards of achievement.

Group tests of achievement and intelligence have not fulfilled the optimistic hopes of their advocates. They have tended to formalize teaching and reduce opportunities to extend and enrich the learning experiences of children. They are, however, of some use when wisely interpreted. The intelligence test is a helpful index of children's ability to perform certain types of work, particularly activities in which language factors are involved. Within their limitations, achievement tests provide bases for comparison of children of different age and grade levels in various subjects. They provide a measure of progress. They furnish a means of diagnosis and guidance for re-teaching or helping individual children with particular weaknesses. They give the teacher himself some indication of success in teaching.

Data on physical development and health are also useful objective measures. Records of height, weight, vision, hearing, diseases, and the like provide important bases for determining achievement to be expected of individual children. The health record furnishes valuable information in getting a complete picture of a child's progress. Comprehensive data on health and physical development gathered periodically and charted with other aspects of development aid in interpreting and appraising inter-relationships of strengths and weaknesses.

Securing Semi-objective Data. Semi-objective means of securing information include aptitude tests, attitude tests, check lists, questionnaires, and rating scales. The term "semi-objective" indicates that your personal, subjective opinion has been partly but not entirely eliminated. Your opinion should not affect the scoring or marking, but it may determine the selection and arrangement of items in the instrument.

Both the commercial and teacher-made varieties of tests of aptitudes, attitudes, and other aspects of personality are increasingly used. Aptitude tests of reliable prediction have not been developed for use with children of elementary-school ages. It is not yet known whether aptitude tests measure special abilities or previous experiences. Attitude tests and questionnaires provide a means of quickly securing evidence concerning intangibles which otherwise would require long study to obtain. However, such instruments merely indicate what the child says he thinks or would do under certain circumstances. What he actually thinks or would do is determined by the new circumstances then existing. With such questionable validity, these instruments cannot substitute for the careful observation of children by teachers interested in the wholesome development of unique personalities.

Check lists and rating scales can be very useful as means of stabilizing and objectifying your observations and opinions. Once you have selected certain lists and scales or developed your own, you can apply them at regular intervals, making charts of the results. The charts of each child's

ratings at different times give evidence of the child's maturing pattern of personality. For example, on a social-adjustment rating scale, George may have been rated a "reject" in September; "avoided by most children" in November; "aloof, only a few friendly acquaintances" in February; "has a few friends" in May.

Securing Subjective Data. Modern school programs provide a wide variety of learning experiences for children and emphasize many aspects of personality—such as appreciations, emotional balance, social adjustment, and honesty—which cannot be measured by objective means. For example, it is not possible, with standardized instruments now available, to secure valid, reliable, and objective evidence of such aspects of growth as coöperation in group enterprises, critical comprehension of the significance of a painting, or friendly interest in the progress of other persons.

Your concern with the development of the total personality of children as unique social individuals makes it imperative that you use instruments, techniques, and procedures suited to the evaluation of objectives beyond those limited to subject-matter skills. There are many subjective devices for securing evaluative information to supplement and clarify objective data. Among the subjective techniques which you will find useful are these:

1. *Accumulative samples of work.* A file for each child of representative pieces of his actual work, dated and preserved for comparison by dates and study of levels of improvement.
2. *Activities record.* A dated tabulation of the enterprises undertaken by the child, indicating those completed, postponed, changed, or abandoned.
3. *Anecdotal records.* Summarized descriptions of the significant acts of the child in various situations.
4. *Appraisals from classmates.* Statements of strengths, weaknesses, and special contributions, in which each child writes a brief report on every other child in the group.
5. *Autobiographical report.* An "autobiography" which each child writes of himself, furnishing clues to his needs and interests.
6. *Biogram.* A biographical outline or simple case study, including family status, school history, physical health, work habits, and so on.
7. *Characterization lists.* The "Who's Who in My Group" and "The Kid I'd Like Most To Be" type of report in which thumb-nail descriptions of fictitious children, representing various typical behavior patterns, are presented to the children. Each child identifies his classmates, or himself, with the various characterizations.
8. *Diary.* A record of events sufficiently important and interesting to be preserved in written form by the child or the teacher.
9. *Inventory of work and play habits.* A list of the child's reactions to his work and play which may be observed by the teacher—reactions to success and frustrating conditions, to other children and adults.
10. *Log of daily events.* A running account of selected classroom activities in brief summary statements, including salient happenings, time factors,

descriptions of particularly significant behavior, methods of completing work, and so on.

11. *Observational record.* Condensed statements of judgments based on direct observation of pertinent episodes indicating problems and progress in adjustment and maturity of a given child.
12. *Rating scale of social behavior.* Appraisal on a three-or five-step scale of behavior associated with specified classifications such as "social attitude," "conduct," "responsibility," and "coöperation."
13. *Self-descriptive report.* An informal essay, written by the child, on such a topic as "What I do to gain friends."
14. *Sociogram.* A structured chart made by the teacher showing the acceptance and rejection of each child by each of his classmates.
15. *Teacher-made tests.* Brief, informal inquiries into progress made in attitudes, appreciations, comprehension, or skills.

How will you decide which of these techniques to use and when to use them? You will select them on the same basis as you organize your teaching—in terms of the objectives of the school and the needs of the children. Choose only those means which seem most practical for securing the information you need. Several techniques, such as autobiographical records, diaries, and self-descriptive reports, may be utilized as functional written-expression experiences for children in the language arts. The activities record and daily log may be included in your planning, together with the tests of your own construction.

Teacher-made tests may be useful measures of progress. Particularly in unit-of-work programs adapted to the maturity and interests of a given group of children, for which standardized tests are not suitable, you may construct informal tests of information, specific skills, understandings, and applications. Early forms of teacher-made tests were chiefly of the essay type. Essay tests were criticized on the bases that they required too much teacher time and energy to mark; were too limited a sample of children's abilities and knowledge; were not sufficiently objective to possess reliability; required more writing than thinking. To eliminate such faults, teacher-made tests were patterned after the "objective" form of standardized tests, using such techniques as multiple-choice, matching, rearranging, identifying items, correcting errors, computing, constructing, crossing out or checking true-false items, completing items, and reasoning to conclusions from facts given. The cure was worse than the disease. The "objective" forms emphasize recall of factual information rather than thinking. They stress memorization of unimportant details at the expense of intelligent understandings. And they tend to reduce children's ability to organize and express their ideas coherently.

Your goal in using informal tests should be to measure understandings and ability to organize and apply information; to secure evidence of growth; to diagnose weaknesses; to indicate further needs; and to familiar-

ize children with ways of meeting test situations adequately. Your biggest challenge is to recognize appropriate test situations and to devise suitable teacher-made instruments in which the test items—facts, skills, attitudes, understandings—are put in functional settings. In paper-and-pencil tests, used with older children, combinations of essay and objective items are more satisfactory than either type used exclusively. The children may assist in selecting material for a test, after which you should further select and organize.

Of course, you will not limit your informal tests to the paper-and-pencil variety. The actual experiences that children have in using various abilities are test situations of the highest order. Examples are: writing a letter of thanks for a talk; reading a report to the group; measuring, sawing, and putting together the parts of a miniature stage.

The use of all of the techniques mentioned above will be prohibitive in terms of the time required. You may combine several techniques, such as the anecdotal record, diary, and observational record, into one "journal record." A journal record is probably your best single subjective means of collecting evaluative information. Later, the information relating to a given child may be abstracted, entered on separate sheets with interpretations made on the basis of all available data, and preserved in the children's separate private permanent folders. Since the information included in a journal record is cumulative, it may be used to interpret the child's development at various stages and times. It also provides a source of information concerning the interplay of personalities and the impact of any given child's personality on others.

Providing Time for Evaluation. Like most important jobs, evaluation requires time. Vague, indefinite plans for appraisal, such as "at odd times during the day," "sometime in the week," or "whenever time is available," usually result in little or no real evaluation. All too often, even well-laid plans for evaluation fall through because of the pressure of other activities or for lack of specific provision in schedules. As has been said before, your choice of what to do with time shows what you consider most important. If the appraisal of work in terms of needs and objectives is educationally significant, then you must provide a definite time allotment for evaluation.

If individual children are to use self-evaluative techniques such as keeping diaries, writing autobiographies, analyzing and rating themselves on scales and the like, appropriate times must be provided. If such techniques are to be really educative, the child must have sufficient time to think carefully and work through the results of his self-appraisals. Appropriate times for conferences with individual children, you will recall, include before and after school, recesses, independent work periods, and various free periods, as well as a "conference hour" which may be

scheduled. Do not overlook, in using these evaluative activities, the possibilities of functional language-arts experiences.

Times provided for evaluation by the whole group will vary in terms of purposes. First, of course, is the appraisal that accompanies good planning. If there is a sharing-planning period at the beginning of the school day, the group should appraise their plans briefly in terms of what they have accomplished before. If the planning period is later in the day, such as before an activities period or skills period, evaluative approaches should be used such as "Why should we work on the transportation outline?" "Complete the rabbit hutch?" "Study our lists of difficult words?" Naturally, time for an evaluative analysis should be provided at the end of large blocks of work and as a regular part of the culminating activities concluding a broad unit. At any time during the day—when disagreements arise, indecision occurs, contradictory information is found—the "psychological moment" should be seized for effective group evaluation.

In addition, you should plan a regular end-of-day period for summing up the accomplishments of the day. Such an evaluative period, though it may be only ten minutes, is a tremendous help to children in organizing their learning and generalizing from their studies. This is also a time to look realistically at what agreements have not been kept, what plans have not been carried out, and what weaknesses need to be eliminated. Furthermore, this brief period may improve children's attitudes toward school and make them more competent in reporting to parents their school activities. Such evaluation periods may even help parents become more understanding of the school's program.

You need to provide special times for certain of your own evaluative activities. Naturally, as an alert student teacher, your evaluations of the children and of your own teaching are continuous—an integral part of every activity. You also keep a note-pad handy to jot down ideas, happenings, illuminating phrases, and key words of descriptive anecdotes as a safeguard to memory. However, you need to allow special times for conferences with individual children, for constructing and giving tests of your own design, for interpreting test results with children, for writing your journal log, maintaining cumulative records, making progress reports to parents, and the like. An effective plan is to schedule certain specific afternoons each week for these responsibilities. You may also set up a rotation plan for checking papers, maintaining records, and writing reports. Completing a few each day will enable you to keep up with the work and avoid the frantic, "feast or famine" existence of the teacher whose evaluative activities are sporadic and unplanned. Time can be spent only once. The provision of regular times for evaluation will also help you avoid the temptation to omit or neglect this important phase of your work.

OTHER PRACTICAL USES OF EVALUATION

There are three ways of applying the results of an evaluative program. The first way is to apply the results as a resource in the educative process itself. The second way is in broadening the base of the teacher's judgment as to his success in guiding the children's learning toward the objectives of the school. The third way concerns the organizational and administrative uses of evaluation in determining grade placement, in reporting to parents, and in developing cumulative records. In the following pages some practical suggestions are offered to help you in coördinating your evaluative work with reference to administrative policies and procedures of the school.

Using Evaluations in Grouping Children. One very practical use of information teachers secure about children from their evaluative work is in grouping them for satisfactory adjustment. Traditionally, grade groups have been organized on the assumption that the educational needs of children are best met through homogeneous grouping. From the early use of reading ability as the criterion for grouping, various factors have been used such as chronological age, general academic achievement, intelligence quotient, mental age, and social maturity. Each of these factors has been abandoned as the sole basis for grade grouping in forward-looking schools because, while the ideal of homogeneous grouping was that children developed best when with other children like them, no two children are completely alike. Thus homogeneous grouping in terms of any one criterion, such as mental age, meant heterogeneous grouping in terms of other criteria.

The modern school recognizes that heterogeneous grouping is inevitable, natural, and desirable. The present trend is to combine all data on the individual child and, on the basis of the composite appraisal, to place him in the grade group best suited to his total development. In actual practice this means that children are admitted to school on the basis of chronological age. This factor continues to carry considerable weight in grouping, but re-grouping for individual children is on the basis of their general maturity.

Within a given grade or classroom there are three approaches to the problem of grouping. One approach is to ignore the problem, to assume that the grade is a homogeneous group, that all the children are alike in abilities, attitudes, interests, skills, and social maturity. The whole group works with the same materials and projects, and the same standards are maintained for all. A second approach is to divide the children into general-ability groups for their skill learning. A limitation of this approach which sets up "fast," "average," and "slow" sections is that a section which is "fast" in reading will include children who are "average" or

even "slow" in arithmetic or handwriting. Designating these stigmatized sections by such terms as "Red Birds," "Bluebirds," and "Sparrows" may have the further stultifying effect of attempting, unsuccessfully, to conceal from children the teacher's appraisal of their achievements. Such practices are being abandoned as more teachers recognize their responsibility for grouping children in terms of their balanced growth, rather than on the basis of a single skill or comparison with a single standard. Thus the third approach, functional grouping, is being used by increasing numbers of teachers. This grouping and re-grouping of children in terms of their changing needs, purposes, and work to be done requires comprehensive appraisal of their strengths, weaknesses, and adjustment within the group. Feelings of inferiority need not result from such practices.

Whether the program is subject-centered, correlated, or integrated, the children may be organized into several small groups for various phases of work. You will probably find your critic teacher grouping the children within his classroom. In work on skills, such as reading, grouping children of similar needs and abilities—if properly managed—reduces feelings of inferiority or superiority, encourages children to raise questions, analyze their difficulties, and help each other. When a few children need extensive assistance on some personality need, special interest, skill, or project, a group may be formed for that purpose. These special groups may work together one day, a week, or several months. Since children are re-grouped as needs and purposes change, no stigma need be attached to membership in any given group. The sensitive teacher will so evaluate children's development and guide grouping that each child is in at least one group to which he can make a real contribution. Much of the work on whole-group enterprises, particularly in the later-elementary grades, is done by small groups working as committees. Such groups are organized in terms of the jobs to be done, the number of children needed to carry out each part of the plan, and the purposes and needs of individual children within the group enterprise.

In functional grouping, your responsibility is to help each child obtain experience with a variety of small-group situations designed to develop his special abilities, to strengthen his weaknesses, and to contribute to the work of the class. Your intimate knowledge of the individual children, gained from your appraisals of them, furnishes the basis for tactfully guiding them into and out of small groups as their needs are met.

Your Contributions in Reporting to Parents. Reports of children's progress are one of the most influential contacts between the school and parents. The form of the report gives the most definite public evidence of the real aims of the school. The system of "marks" usually indicates the emphasis in teaching and the methods of evaluating. Parents receive the report as the teacher's message concerning the development of their child

and therefore attach considerable importance to its interpretation of the progress of the child. Overemphatic approval or disapproval is detrimental to the child in his normal, wholesome development.

In elementary schools at the present time there are four general types of reports to parents, here listed in order of preference: teacher-parent conferences; informal letter-type reports; descriptive check lists; formal "grades" in subject-matter. Recognizing that valid appraisals could not be made in such small percentage units, most elementary schools have abandoned the use of numerical grades such as 99, 87, 75. The trend in formal report cards has been away from letter marks such as A, B, C, D, E, and F. Newer types of formal reports are using more descriptive terms such as "Excellent," "Satisfactory," "Showing Improvement," and are including information concerning growth in abilities, interests, habits, and qualities of personality beyond subject-matter achievement. Some include brief paragraphs interpreting the terms employed.

Following the trend toward the elimination of competitive marking, in many schools the formal report card is being discarded in favor of informal personal letters. Among the advantages of the letter-type report is its informal, personal directness, discussing the child as an individual rather than as a subject for training. Well-written letter reports are friendly and informing. They show the interest of the teacher in the child and evidence his knowledge of each child by sympathetic analysis and suggestions of ways the home and school can coöperate in promoting the child's development. To achieve these advantages, such reports must emphasize positive rather than negative statements concerning the child's growth. They tactfully discuss his good characteristics as leads into behavior needing improvement.

A variation of the letter-type report is that in which the child writes a letter appraising his own progress. The teacher may then supplement the child's analysis with one of his own. The letter-type reports are sent less often than are formal cards. Above all, such letters must be sincere and in language parents can understand or much of their value is lost. The confusion caused by inappropriate phrasing may be shown by the example of the Italian-born parents of little Joe, who came to school returning his report. Sincerely interested but puzzled, they asked, "What thees mean?" pointing to the checked phrases "Coöperates well with others," and "Is well adjusted to his peer group." As the teacher sought simpler explanations, the father continued, "How's my Joe doing with his work—O.K.? Is he being good boy? Eh?" His questions showed clearly enough what Joe's father wanted of a report from school. Through direct conversation his questions were readily answered. The teacher-parent conference, however time-consuming, is probably the most satisfactory method of reporting. Modern teachers recognize that teacher-parent conferences are neces-

sary, in addition to any of the above methods, for adequately reporting to parents the child's progress in school.

As a student teacher, you are not expected to change the form of reporting used by your school. You may, however, have the responsibility of marking report cards, filling in days of attendance and other information required on reports, writing letter-type reports, writing comments on children's self-evaluations, or writing notes to supplement formal reports. Many schools still using formal reports now supplement them with mimeographed folders which furnish additional information about the work of the group, the topics studied, and the child's particular strengths and weaknesses not indicated by the formal report card. You may have opportunities to develop or complete such folders for the children in your group or to take part in parent-teacher conferences. Your rôle in parent conferences may be as co-teacher or helping teacher. Use tact in these meetings, and understand that your critic teacher will not be able to have you take part in all of them.

In all of these responsibilities, no matter what form of report you have to use, you will have opportunities to help children gain a sense of achievement and to guide parents in better understanding their children. In meeting these opportunities, the following purposes may guide you. A good school report to parents should:

1. Reduce undesirable competition between, and comparison of, children.
2. Contribute to balanced physical, emotional, social, and mental development of children.
3. Provide adequate descriptions of quality, quantity, and variety of children's activities.
4. Promote greater understanding by parents of the school's purposes.
5. Furnish information of specific ways in which parents may assist in achieving educational objectives.
6. Encourage wholesome self-analysis by children of their strengths and weaknesses in relation to their general progress.
7. Diagnose children's difficulties in specific terms with definite suggestions for their elimination.
8. Assist parents in getting a comprehensive picture of their child's development.
9. Build mutual understanding and confidence in the child and his parents.
10. Increase each child's trust in the teacher's understanding of him as an individual.
11. Build the child's respect for the teacher's integrity.
12. Add to the child's interest in school activities and his enthusiasm for further learning.

Your Contributions to Cumulative Records. You should keep in mind that what you choose to record indicates your educational values, including especially your respect for each child under your guidance. You may wish to study again the cumulative permanent records of the children's

growth and progress, noting such information as the results of standardized intelligence and achievement tests, health examinations, scholarship marks or grades, family history, attendance, profile charts, and personality inventories. Your critic teacher has permitted you to study the current records which he maintains. With that background of information about each child, you will be able to make a real contribution to the records of each of the children.

Ways in which you can be of practical assistance to your critic teacher in contributing to cumulative records include the accurate recording of data from achievement tests, physical examinations, and interest-inventories. Checking cumulative records for inconsistencies and omissions may be helpful to the critic teacher as well as a learning experience for you. You may write specific illustrative anecdotes of each child's behavior, select suitable samples of work, and organize data for the diagnosis of individual children's abilities and needs. The compiling of simple case studies for inclusion in the permanent records of a few children selected by your critic teacher may also be helpful to him.

You should be able to make some personal contribution to the current and cumulative records of the children with whom you are working. Possibly you can equal the achievement of the student teacher whose anecdotal records were of such professional quality that the critic teacher entered them without change in his cumulative record folders.

Looking at Evaluation Realistically. Evaluation is yet so new, really so unexplored a field, that there are still many frontiers to be extended. It is also a complicated—and at times perplexing—process. However, you have already seen that all teachers must make appraisals, must form judgments. As you consider realistically the challenge of modern evaluative procedures, you may be concerned with their extensivity and complexity. With experience, however, many of these techniques can be employed comfortably within a reasonable working day. Moreover, much of the fun in teaching comes from knowing that children are growing in desirable directions. Such evaluative practices as those discussed in this chapter will help you accumulate the desired evidence. To this end, the more experiences you have with the various evaluative instruments now available, the more insight you will gain into how, realistically, to achieve fair and helpful evaluations of children as learners, as workers, and as citizens.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

You can plan your work and carry on your varied activities with greater assurance and efficiency when your actions are based upon continuous self-appraisal. As you study and discuss the following questions, you will develop better perspective on the evaluative phases of your work.

1. *Your Understanding of Evaluation:*

As you have studied this chapter, how has your concept of evaluation changed? What further do you need to learn about evaluation? What specifically do you now consider the chief differences between measurement and evaluation? In what ways have your evaluative procedures with children changed through understanding the "steps involved in evaluation?" Through understanding the characteristics of a modern evaluation program?

2. *Your Guidance of Group Evaluation:*

What purposes, plans, and activities have you evaluated with the children as a group? How have you related your procedures in teaching to the work of the group in appraising their joint undertakings? What examples, specifically, can you give of goals set up and appraised by your group? Of achievements appraised by the group? What illustrations can you give, from your teaching, of ways in which the dynamics of group evaluation have operated? What ways have you found most effective for guiding group evaluation of individual children?

3. *Your Guidance of Individual's Evaluations:*

In what ways have you helped individual children to appraise their own needs and progress? How have you modified your guidance of children's self-evaluation in terms of their maturity levels? What variations have you found among your group in aspiration levels which individuals are able to appraise? What techniques have you used in guiding individual children's self-evaluations? Which are most effective in your use?

4. *Your Appraisal of Your Evaluative Procedures:*

How do you compare the various techniques, instruments, and procedures which you have used in evaluating the development of children? Which procedures have you emphasized? For what reasons? What procedures have you used very little? Not used at all? What are your reasons? In what ways have you achieved a balanced emphasis upon evaluative procedures?

IOEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. It may be said that the teacher's values are demonstrated by what he does rather than by what he says are his goals. What does this mean for the teacher's personality and its influence upon his approach to evaluation? For his professional preparation?

2. Validity, reliability, and objectivity are ideal goals rather than completely achieved qualities of appraisal instruments. What bearing does this idea have on teacher-made tests and scales? On standardized tests?

3. On what bases may it be said that a broader educational philosophy, or point of view about causes and goals, is required of the teacher in using the evaluative approach than is necessary in using the measurement approach to appraising educational results?

4. Occasionally one hears a teacher say "Bob has an IQ of only 74. He is bound to fail the grade." To what extent is such a statement justified? What are the implications of such a statement? What information would you need before accepting statements of this kind? Mental age and intelligence quotient

data are not always wisely used by teachers. In relation to guiding children's self-evaluations, what are the potential values of knowing MA and IQ? What are the dangers?

5. From data on certain intelligence tests, one can find mental age, verbal, non-verbal, and manipulatory aspects of the operations of intelligence. What does each of these mean? What are the values of knowing about each of these in guiding children's self-evaluations?

6. What do the three letter-type reports, given below, indicate concerning the teachers' ideas of what evaluation means? What kinds of evaluative techniques must these teachers have used to have been able to present the kinds of evidence they have included in these reports?

Sample One

Dear Mr. and Mrs. Pizatte:

Joe is a good boy. Sometimes he forgets and does something he should not, like pulling the girls' hair or pinching someone. Each time he does something not good he is sorry. He does not do these things as often as he did early in the year. Joe is growing into good habits. He is honest and we can trust him. He gets along well with most of the other children.

Joe is doing all right with his school work. He does well in arithmetic, geography, history, health, and music. He likes to sing and has a good ear for the tunes. Joe needs to work on his handwriting so it will be neat and easier to read. He is trying to learn to read better.

We would like for you to help Joe gain weight. He should eat a good breakfast every morning. Joe is thin and is not heavy enough for a boy of his age and tallness. He has too many colds and that makes it hard for him to study and pay attention.

Joe does lovely work in art. I hope you are saving some of the drawings and paintings he takes home. He is helping the class plan and paint a long picture, or mural, for the wall. The picture is about the class study of how man has used fire.

Do come in and visit us whenever you can. I am at school until 4:30 every Monday to talk with parents. If you would like to talk with me about Joe's work, please feel welcome to come any Monday.

Sincerely,
Mary McSwain
Teacher, Fourth Grade

Sample Two

Dear Mr. and Mrs. Jones:

Sam is making progress in his fifth grade work. His social adjustment with the other children is very good. As you know, Sam is doing excellent work in spelling. We are hoping that this will soon begin to carry over into reading. When he attains better command of words he will more readily recognize them wherever he sees them.

Sam has a better understanding of carrying and borrowing in arithmetic than he had earlier. We are using the concepts of multiplication and division now in solving everyday problems, which he seems to understand.

Sam has shown a growing interest in reading and bends every effort to

successfully interpret his understanding of stories through his written work. He has some difficulty with this part of his reading as well as with his contributions in reading orally. However, we are hoping that his increased interest will continue and his efforts will help him to improve. We are helping him whenever time is available.

Sam's work habits are usually good, although at times he is not thoughtful of his neighbors. Sam realizes this weakness and is trying to improve.

Do come in and visit us whenever you can. If you would like to discuss Sam's progress further, I am always here for an hour after close of school.

Sincerely,

Janet Barnes
Fifth Grade Teacher

Sample Three

Dear Mr. and Mrs. Jackson:

Phillip has made substantial advances in most aspects of his school work during the autumn. While he continues to improve in all areas of academic work except spelling, he needs more study of word composition. To make real progress in spelling Phillip must accept more responsibility for his own achievement. Skill in reading is steadily developing and Phillip makes excellent use of his free-reading periods. Arithmetic skills are being acquired more slowly, but satisfactorily, although problem-solving is still difficult for him.

Phillip's most gratifying work is in creative writing. In this form of expression his ideas continue to be original, often quite clever, and are beautifully expressed. I am sure that his written reports will become more effective as he determines to make his papers more accurate, neat, and better organized. However, please do not overemphasize this or his grammar, for by so doing we may lose more than we gain.

In his quiet, unassuming way Phillip has a great deal of determination. He is interested in all group undertakings and is assuming an increasingly responsible share of leadership in group control. In physical education Phillip finds his greatest problems. He cannot seem to get dressed on time, apparently because his participation in group games is not satisfying to him. With patience his motor coordination will improve and his muscular skill come more into balance with his intellectual development. Then we may expect Phillip to be happier and better adjusted socially with the group.

The group selected as a central topic for study the problem of how machines influenced the development of the United States. They titled it "How Machines Helped Our Country," and have had much interesting discussion, enlightening investigation, and fruitful work on various aspects of the topic. In addition to helping unify the group, improve sharing of ideas and cooperation in study, the topic has allowed the children to study at their own levels of ability and improve many skills in functional ways.

Phillip has taken an increasingly active part in music and art. These experiences seem to be particularly enjoyable and relaxing to him.

It has been a pleasure to work with Phillip. We anticipate fine relationships through the year.

Sincerely yours,
Eleanor Moore
Teacher, Sixth Grade

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Association for Childhood Education, *Records and Reports* (Washington, D. C., The Association for Childhood Education, 1941).

You will find this thirty-two page bulletin helpful in its explanations of the purposes of reports, discussions of the relationships between school records and reports to parents, and illustrations of children making their own reports.

BARR, A. S., BURTON, William H., and BURCKNER, L. J., *Supervision* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1947).

Chapter VI, "The Appraisal of the Educational Product," and Chapter XVI, "Evaluating the Effectiveness of the Educational Leadership," will be especially useful to you as a student teacher because of the excellent explanations and discussions of observational techniques, rating devices, scales, and tests.

GOOD, H. G., *A History of Western Education* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1947).

You will find this book excellently organized to present a unified view of the historical progress of education. Chapter 19, "Transforming the Elementary School," will be one of your best sources for clear understanding of the historical explanation of present emphases on evaluation in elementary education.

GREENE, Harry A., JOHNSON, Albert N., and GRABERICH, J. Raymond, *Measurement and Evaluation in the Elementary School* (New York, Longmans, Green and Company, 1941).

This book is a good treatment of tests and testing in the elementary school. Chapter VIII, on teacher-made tests, and Chapter XI, on personality testing, will be of special interest to you.

HICK, Arch O., *The Education of Exceptional Children* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1940).

You will find Chapter I, "The Field and the Challenge," readable and effective in giving an overview of the problem. Chapter II, "The Local Problem," and Chapter XXXII, "A Program of Prevention," contain practical suggestions which classroom teachers should find helpful in developing their classroom procedures.

HORACE MANN-LINCOLN INSTITUTE OF SCHOOL EXPERIMENTATION, *How to Construct a Sociogram* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947).

This brief pamphlet presents, in outline form, suggestions for structuring in diagram fashion the social relationships of a group. It should be helpful as you plan to develop sociograms of your group.

HUGGERT, Albert J., and MILLARD, Cecil V., *Growth and Learning in the Elementary School* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Company, 1946).

Chapter 13 presents a general discussion of the place of evaluation in the teaching process; Chapter 14, specific examples of evaluative aids. Chapter 15 presents a full discussion of reports and practices in reporting to parents, with sample reports.

LEE, J. MURRAY, and LEE, DORRIS MAY, *The Child and His Curriculum*, 2nd Ed. (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950).

The final chapter, XV, presents helpful suggestions for developing a program of evaluation, examples of several useful instruments, and lists of specific functions of various techniques.

MCGAUGHY, J. R., *An Evaluation of the Elementary School* (Indianapolis, The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1937).

You will find Chapter II, "The Bases for Evaluation," helpful for its discussion of individual differences. Chapter VIII, "The Evaluation of the Elementary School

Program," contains thought-provoking criticisms of intelligence and achievement testing and suggestions for broader approaches to appraising the development of children.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Intelligence: Its Nature and Nurture, Thirty-Ninth Yearbook, Part I* (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1940).

This volume is one of the best sources for thorough discussion of the developmental approach to intelligence. Study thoughtfully those sections in which you recognize need of increased understanding.

Ross, C. C., *Measurement in Today's Schools* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947).

This book presents a comprehensive treatment of measurement, with analysis of the use of many specific tests. You will find Chapter II, "The Historical Development of Measurement in Education," Chapter V, "Principles of Constructing Specific Types of Objective Tests," and Chapter VI, "The Construction and Use of Essay Examinations," of specific help in understanding the place of tests in the teaching process. Chapter XVII, "Evaluation," may help some in showing the relationships between measurement and evaluation.

University of the State of New York, *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education* (Albany, University of the State of New York Press, 1931).

This is a challenging pamphlet in which are stated the six widely quoted objectives resulting from cooperative work by a state-wide committee of teachers, principals, and superintendents. The statements are followed by brief explanatory discussion which you will find thought-provoking.

WRIGHTSTON, J. Wayne, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939).

This is one of the most widely quoted works on evaluation at the elementary-school level. You will find many suggestions for developing and using modern evaluation techniques. The development of instruments in terms of purposes is explained by several examples. The report of results of modern teaching procedures is stimulating.

CHAPTER IX

Utilizing Learning Materials with Children

Throughout your student teaching you have many opportunities to see that the modern teacher in the elementary school is concerned with more than "book larnin'" in the three R's. The modern teacher understands that learning is more than mere rote memorization. He recognizes that learning grows out of the needs, purposes, and curiosities of the learners. He also realizes that experiences which are truly integrative make the learnings from such experiences of immediate value and benefit to the learner in his daily living. The modern teacher works with children in the belief that there is real learning only when the child purposefully, constructively modifies or changes his behavior as a result of the needful, significant learning experience which he has had.

In order to achieve optimum learning on the part of the children whom it serves, the modern school must provide a great wealth of materials which will foster and facilitate experiences which children recognize as real and worthwhile. Memorization which results in a mere "piling up" of more and more verbal abstractions has proved to be wasteful and ineffectual as a means of giving children meaningful learnings. "Three times three is nine" on a purely verbal level is of little import to the child. This verbalization can have meaning only after the child has had many concrete experiences with "three crayons," "three spoons," "three houses" and with the concept of "nine boys," "nine bottles of milk." He must know too what addition means and that multiplication is rapid addition. Thus the modern school must provide a wide range of learning materials that will aid children in gaining insight and in comprehending meaning in all that they study in school.

In this chapter many kinds of learning materials now available for your use as a student teacher will be discussed. The prime purpose of the chapter is to help you in making the best possible use of concrete and printed materials, audio-visual aids, and materials for the creative expression of children.

SELECTING LEARNING MATERIALS

No learning material is either good or bad in and of itself. Every material is, rather, relatively desirable or undesirable, relatively effective or

ineffective, relatively valuable or harmful in relation to its specific effects upon a given child or group of children as used at a given time and under certain circumstances. Simply to use such learning materials as film strips, exhibits, finger paints, charts, graphs, and the like because it is "modern" to do so misses the whole point of the purposefulness of learning. Movies, radio broadcasts, or paints can be foisted upon children in much the same way as exercise sheets, work books, and practice pads have frequently been forced upon learners in the stratified subject-centered curriculum. It is safe to say that all instructional materials are helpful in learning only to the extent that the demonstrated need for the use of such materials has been recognized and accepted as desirable or practicable by the learner. If the child does not accept the responsibility for utilizing meaningfully the learning materials provided, what is "learned" may become just so much mechanical repetition of abstract verbalizations or a motley collection of jumbled misconceptions, quasi-learnings, or gross errors in meaning.

As a student teacher you will have many opportunities to select or reject certain learning materials for use with the group whom you teach. It will not be enough to label some materials "old-fashioned" and others "modern." Rather, you will need to be guided by more critical appraisals of the various kinds of learning materials available to you in terms of the purposes for which they may be used. In other words, you will need to choose instructional materials that are sound in terms of their functions in the learning process rather than on the basis of snap judgment, personal preference, immediate and easy availability, or the recommendation of others.

Materials for Individual Development. Some learning materials should be utilized primarily to help the individual child grow toward the development of his fullest capacities. Such materials may not necessarily ever be utilized by the group as a whole or by only the slow learners. They may be practice materials, enrichment materials, materials that provide for the further development of unique abilities, or materials that foster special interests. Whatever the experience for which such instructional materials are selected, you will want to remember that they cannot be used purposefully except as these materials meet the immediate needs of the individual who is using them to further his learning. In choosing materials to help the individual child in his learning, the following guides are suggested:

1. Is the material gauged to the developmental level of the child with whom it is being used?
2. Is the material sufficiently appealing in content, arrangement, and appearance that the child will want to work with it?
3. Is the material so organized and presented that the child can gain new concepts, get further insight, and make his new learnings relatively permanent?

4. Does the use of this material encourage the child to seek further new experiences with such material and to want to extend his learnings in this area of experience?
5. Is the material such that, in the using of it, he increases his understanding of processes as well as achieving satisfactory products?
6. Is the material such that he can work with it with a satisfying sense of accomplishment?
7. Does the use of this material improve the child's social adjustment with other children?

Materials for Group Development. Some aids to learning such as movies, film strips, persons, trips, exhibits, recordings, diagnostic tests, and the like are needed in group situations to help the group understand things that are important. The materials chosen should be those of sufficient meaning to all members of the group that everyone should be a participant in the experience. The children can well have a share in decisions relative to the use of such materials. They can consider with the teacher the purposes for which the teaching aids will be used and the values that may come to the group as a whole through the use of a particular learning material.

Here are some considerations to think about as you plan the use of instructional materials with the group as a whole:

1. Will this material benefit all members of the group in their development at this time?
2. Will this material develop concepts and deepen insights that are functional in group enterprises?
3. Does this material offer rich possibilities for group thinking and discussion?
4. Does this material lead the group on to further purposeful research, creative endeavor, experimentation, and the like?
5. Will this material further help the group grow in its social orientation and in its processes of working together harmoniously?

Materials for Balanced Development. Not only must there be a nice balance between materials for individuals and for the group, but also instructional materials should be selected with regard to children's well-rounded development in various areas of the school's program—integrative experience, skills, and aesthetics.

For example, in many schools a variety of functional art materials are utilized, but in those same schools barren, stereotyped materials are used for the teaching of arithmetic. These inconsistent practices do not give children a fair chance to grow as well in their mathematical learnings as in their development of artistic abilities.

A well-balanced experience in learning is gained through various avenues and approaches. Through the exploration and use of different kinds of materials, the children come to recognize that there is no one

royal road to learning—that there are many materials all of which can contribute meaningfully to their total development.

As you seek out instructional materials to maintain this balance, you must guard against pursuing, through children, your own interests or hobbies. If you are particularly intrigued with the use of visual aids, you must avoid unwarranted emphasis upon movies, slides, or film strips. If you are interested in collections and exhibits, you must not overlook the significant contributions of visual aids, recordings, or printed materials.

It is your responsibility, as a student teacher, to study thoughtfully the basic instructional materials supplied in your school and to seek out ways to supplement or supplant those materials from sources at your disposal in the community and on the campus.

The following suggestions are offered to guide you in selecting instructional materials that lead to balanced development:

1. Does this material better help the child in his learning than another material would?
2. Are the instructional materials chosen such that they facilitate learning and the promotion of a friendly and helpful attitude among the group even when selected for the particular needs of an individual child?
3. Has this kind of instructional material been used too frequently or to the exclusion of other valuable materials?
4. What types of teaching aids do these children need to further extend their experiences with various kinds of available instructional materials?
5. Has this material been chosen in the interests of a well-balanced and integrative program rather than upon the basis of purely personal interests of the teacher or a child?
6. Will this material promote the integration of the whole program of the group?
7. Are attractive and helpful materials being secured for each important area of the school program?

Selection a Mutual Process. While the selection of instructional materials is a continuing responsibility of the teacher, at times the children will be able to help in making the choices. As a student teacher, you will be called upon frequently to decide whether to select such materials *for* or *with* children. The answer to this problem is not an easy one. It demands your best judgment in terms of the needs and purposes of the children, the specific learning situation involved, and the educational values to be derived both from the making of the decision and the uses to which the materials are to be put.

No one can tell you specifically how to proceed. The wisest use of learning materials is probably achieved when, through mutual consideration, the children and the teacher reach common understandings and agreements as to why the material is being used, how it will benefit the group, and what the chief results from the use of such materials may be.

There are, however, some guides which will help you in arriving at the decision that you must take the chief responsibility for selection. It is appropriate that you make the decision in the following cases:

1. *In bringing to the group concrete materials that are relevant but outside the range of availability to the children themselves.* This might include such things as exhibit materials borrowed from a person in the community, a museum, or an industrial plant; more complex science equipment; new art media such as finger paints, looms for weaving, tools for wood work; audio-visual aids; and the like.

2. *In selecting for the group printed materials that the teacher will share with the children.* This may include stories and poems that the teacher plans to read to the children; adult materials from content fields which the teacher will read in part or will adapt for the children; pamphlets, charts, or graphs that the teacher locates for use by the group; and so on.

3. *In selecting for the individual or the group printed materials that the children themselves will use.* Such materials would include those which call for your best judgment as to the psychological soundness of the scope and sequence of the materials. Your professional judgment will also be needed concerning the accuracy and desirability of the content.

4. *In choosing those practice materials which are functional for the improvement of skills.* Instructional materials included in work books or practice sheets call for professional understanding on the part of the teacher and should be selected by the teacher.

5. *In selecting most kinds of test materials.*

Children will be able, as individuals and as groups, to contribute important instructional materials for the use of the group. And they should be encouraged to do so. When children do bring things to school, they are participating actively in selecting the learning materials to be used. This implies that you will need to help children grow in learning what is significant to bring to the group. It implies also that no matter how humble the material, every child's contribution must in some way be put to use. Furthermore, the teacher must see that such materials are put to use as soon as possible. To lay children's contributions carelessly aside and then forget ever to use them in any way is a sign of weakness in creative insight into how to utilize such learning materials effectively.

Some practical suggestions of ways in which children select materials to be used are as follows:

1. *Bringing from home concrete and printed materials that will help in the studies being pursued at school.* Such instructional materials include articles for exhibits, science specimens, books, pamphlets, clippings, maps, charts, pictures.
2. *Bringing to school materials that can be utilized in construction activities.* These might include such items as wood, cardboard, tools, paper, paint, cloth.
3. *Bringing to the group materials for aesthetic enjoyment.* Story books, poems, prints, recordings, art objects, and the like are examples.

4. *Choosing from the library printed materials that will help the group in their research.*
5. *Locating further sources of information for the group.* This might include places to visit, persons to interview or to speak before the group, community projects to investigate.
6. *Sharing with the group objects which the children themselves have created.* This could include models, constructions such as bird houses, scientific experiments, miniature gardens, terrariums, paintings, creative writing.

There are other times when the children and teacher together consider various resources and decide which of several choices will best meet the needs of the group. This calls for skillful teacher-pupil planning in terms of well-developed criteria for making choices. The criteria might well include such ideas as these:

1. Will this material help us better now or at a later time?
2. Will this material be useful as well as interesting?
3. Will this material be something that we will understand? Is it too easy? Too difficult?
4. Will this material give us some new ideas that will push our study ahead?
5. Will this material be of value chiefly to one individual, a small group, or the group as a whole?
6. Will this give us a contact with a kind of instructional material with which we need further experience?

Situations in which coöperative selection by the children and the teacher may be beneficial include the following:

1. *Choosing resources of immediate usefulness.* This includes selecting from among several possible movies, exhibits or recordings those that will best meet the needs of the group in their learning at this particular time.
2. *Choosing materials that lend themselves to group study.* This involves choosing from several sets of readers, children's newspapers, arithmetic books, or social-studies books those that the children will use for group study or common learnings.
3. *Selecting appropriate means of expressing common learnings.* These learnings may be expressed through booklets, murals, dramatizations, and the like.
4. *Locating materials for free-reading time.* This includes books selected from homes, bookmobiles, or nearby libraries for use in the room library.
5. *Locating materials which may be secured through written requests.* The children and teacher can consider cooperatively various sources of free or inexpensive materials. The materials can then be secured through writing to such sources as museums, industrial plants, government agencies, service organizations, and the like.
6. *Selecting instructional materials suitable for use in independent work periods.*

Sources of Instructional Materials. In your classroom there are many promising materials readily available. You will want to be sure, however,

that you are not overlooking other valuable sources. You should explore the school as a whole. Undoubtedly the school office or library will contain files of materials and catalogs from school-supply companies. You should also find out what resources are available on the campus. In your college library, curriculum-materials center, or teaching-aids laboratory, there may be available a wide sampling of materials: picture collections, movies, film strips, clipping files, recordings, models, reference volumes, sample textbooks, and the like. In your college library you may be able to find commercially made lists of free and inexpensive materials that will aid you in locating and selecting yet other teaching resources. Professional bibliographies will give you further leads as to sources of securing available materials. You should not overlook resources in the community as well as state and national sources of materials that you can get free or on loan.

You will need to realize that the selection of instructional materials is so significant in your continued success in teaching that you will not want to be too easily satisfied with the mediocre, the "almost good enough," or the too readily accessible material. Your concern with this matter of selecting materials will need to be, rather, that "the best is none too good" for the children whom you teach. In this spirit, the selection of learning materials becomes both a challenge and a quest that pays off in very satisfying results.

USING CONCRETE MATERIALS

The learning of children is largely dependent upon experiences with concrete materials. They learn about animals and their care from their pets. They learn to use tools in the family's basement workshop. They learn to fish with their fathers and to cook with their mothers. They learn to climb by having ladders, tree trunks, and jungle gyms upon which to experiment and test their strength. Probably far too often, however, the use of concrete materials for learning has been confined to the home and community while the school has emphasized vicarious and abstract learning.

The modern teacher now recognizes that children learn to do by doing. He also realizes that such learning by doing demands a wealth of concrete materials in the school environment for direct experiencing by the group. In the modern elementary school, materials that give children first-hand, direct experiences, that give meanings or concepts, are utilized purposefully and regularly.

Values of Concrete Materials. In a modern classroom the teacher has such concrete materials as leaf or rock collections, globes, terrariums, models, and the like. He knows that these materials, used functionally,

contribute significantly to learning. He realizes that the use of the concrete involves activity that is not only good for children physically but is also inherent in the learning process. He knows that sensory experience is valuable in helping children to develop concepts. He wants children, through the use of concrete materials, to be both experimental and venturesome in their approach to new ideas and new things. He wants children to experience the satisfactions of experimentation and discovery. He wants children to develop emotionalized attitudes that encourage them to want to continue their learning, that keep them asking "Why?" and "How?" and "What for?" Through the use of concrete materials, the teacher also expects to guide children toward a synthesis of their past and present experiences. And he realizes that through the use of direct experiences with the concrete, children may gain a sense of personal effectiveness, achievement, and success that may not be possible if only verbal instructional materials are provided in the school.

Through creating a stimulating environment that encourages the children to want to work, the teacher's job is made more interesting and actually easier. Furthermore, problems of group control are minimized. The environment itself helps to focus interests and purposes.

Concrete Materials in the Room Environment. Many concrete materials can be brought into the classroom by the teacher, the children, and the parents. Others may be provided by the school. There are many types of concrete materials suitable for use in the elementary school. Some of the most important of these are:

include scale representations of terrain or land areas, bodies of water, farms, buildings, settlements, engines.

4. *Miniatures*, which are reproductions of objects done on a very small scale. They are a type of model, but more minute and less exact in detail than other kinds of models. Examples of miniatures include furniture, means of transportation, articles of household equipment.

5. *Globes*, which are specialized forms of models, created for the purpose of studying the earth's surface. These models are used to give children understandings which flat maps never make possible. Examples of uses include studies of seasons, latitude and longitude, change in length of night and day, hemispheres, polar areas, distances, air routes.

6. *Living things*, such as fish, reptiles, rodents, mosses, grasses, and roots, which serve as samples of reality taken from their natural surroundings for purposes of closer observation and study. Children learn more about living things through the use of balanced aquariums and terrariums.

As you work with concrete materials, you will understand that you are purposefully rearranging or simulating reality in order to make learning more meaningful for children.

Practical Suggestions for Classroom Use. What you do with the concrete materials is as important as their availability. Effectiveness in the use of concrete materials is contingent upon the values derived by children in their learning and the motivation which these materials give to further learning. Here are several practical guides to the use of concrete materials in the classroom:

1. *The more sensory impressions the child can get from concrete materials the better.* To see the specimen is better than just reading about it in a book, but to see and feel it is better yet. Children should have opportunities, perhaps before school or in an independent work period, to experience the material as completely as possible. If the concrete is to be used in a group discussion, remember that the children's first attention will be upon the material. To try to pass around such things and carry on a thoughtful discussion of them at the same time is practically impossible. Experiencing the material fully through looking, feeling, examining, hearing, and tasting should always precede discussion. The five-year-old, making a Jack-o-lantern, can view its shape, judge its weight, feel the texture of the hard outer shell and the soft interior, examine the seeds, and taste the raw pumpkin. When verbalization follows the real, meanings are made clearer and attention in discussion is improved.

2. *The more effective the display, the more meaningful the learning therefrom will be.* If you study commercial window displays and exhibits, you will see how significant "eye appeal" can be. In the classroom the exhibit should be so placed that it draws attention to itself and in such a spot that a small group of children can "talk it over" together while examining it. The material should be low enough to be accessible and easily studied from various angles. The layout of the exhibit should be such that a sense of unity, organization, and sequence of one main idea is created; it should never be cluttered, jumbled, or "thrown together." One third grade had an exhibit of the nuts to be found or bought in the community. They organized the exhibit so that the first look gave the impression of the great variety of nuts available. Closer observation

revealed that they had also classified them as to those bought and those found in the community, as well as in sequences that showed the wide range between hardness and softness of the shells.

Labels should be direct and clearly stated, attractive, legible. Exhibits kept too long lose their effectiveness. Good exhibits of concrete materials do not just happen. They grow out of purposes and are intelligently planned and put together.

3. *The closer the relationship between various materials and experiences, the greater their usefulness will be.* No one kind of instructional material used in isolation is good enough. Concrete materials should be used interrelatedly with other kinds of materials, such as reading matter, visual aids, and materials for creative expression. When children have an opportunity to collect, see, feel, and discuss the various kinds of soils in their community, read about what these soils are used for, see movies about how they are cultivated, hear radio presentations of soil conservation, and creatively express their own ideas in various media, their learning about soils is not only facilitated but is also made more permanent, more insightful, and potentially more significant in their daily living.

Using Concrete Materials in the Community. Some valuable concrete materials will not be available for classroom use. Such materials may be either immovable, too large, too fragile, or too valuable to bring to school. In these cases, you will want to plan to take the children to the sources of these materials: museums, libraries, art galleries, industrial exhibit rooms, personal or private collections, science laboratories, sources of natural phenomena, and the like. As you plan such educational experiences out in the community to study concrete materials, there are several important points to bear in mind:

1. Plan carefully in advance of the visit just what the group expects to see and the questions which they want to answer.
2. Go directly to see specific things. Avoid beclouding the main purposes of the visit with extraneous side trips or with attempts to see too much.
3. Spend enough time really to comprehend the material that you have gone to study. Guide the children in getting the answers to their questions, and help the children to see things that they had not anticipated in their questions.
4. Plan follow-up experiences on return to your classroom. Augment what is seen on the trip with other types of instructional materials that further the learnings of the children.

In connection with a study of early life in their community, one *fourth-grade group* decided to go to a museum to see the life-size model of a pioneer cabin home. They went directly to see just this one thing in the museum, passing by the rooms containing Indian relics, gun exhibits, and models of river boats. They first took turns looking in at the two doors of the cabin to get a good look at the furnishings. They next studied the outer construction of the cabin. They asked the museum guide questions. They looked again and again as new

questions which they had not been able to anticipate came to mind. When they got back to school, they summarized not only what they had seen but also related their experience with this large model to the on-going study of their community. The teacher read the children a story of pioneer home life. They studied a collection of pictures of pioneer home life. They handled and discussed objects brought into the classroom such as a candle mould, flat iron, and churn. They made original drawings and models and wrote original stories. In this way, the visit to the museum became not only a worthwhile experience within itself, but also led on into further valuable related experiences.

As older children make such visits, they will be able to see more, stay longer, ask more insightful questions, perhaps even take some notes on what they have seen. Otherwise, the over-all procedures remain much the same.

USING AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

In modern living two media of mass communication, the radio and the motion picture, are being widely used to extend people's learnings. Modern schools are recognizing this fact and are using these media more regularly and more effectively. They are utilizing also such allied materials as film strips, slides, photographs, illustrations, diagrams, maps, charts, graphs, and recordings as these become increasingly available for use. In your student-teaching experience, you too want to continue to make effective use of such materials of instruction.

Values of Audio-visual Materials. Modern teachers realize that, since a child cannot get every experience firsthand, vicarious learnings through audio-visual materials are next best. Through these media children have experiences that, while indirect, approximate reality. Such experiences have elements of reality in the sense that the children get deeper insight thereby than they would by just "reading words." Experiences with audio and visual materials of instruction can help children understand things not in their immediate environment—how they look or sound, how they operate, what uses are made of them. It must be remembered that the learning of children in the early-elementary grades is limited almost exclusively to the here-and-now. The most effective use of audio-visual aids is to help young children further understand and clarify their direct experiences.

For children in the later-elementary grades such materials of instruction frequently furnish excellent means of "taking off" into further study, of checking or correcting verbal impressions in the process of studying, of evaluating growth in learning, and of summarizing or synthesizing learnings. These materials may also be purposefully used to stimulate reflective thinking, discussion, creative expression, or appreciation and enjoyment.

Whenever audio-visual materials are utilized, you do want to have clearly in mind the values which may be realized. You will also want to consider what may be the best time to use these materials. To present audio-visual materials as mere "window-dressing" or "filler"—out of relation to children's purposes and needs—is to misuse important media that can be functional and meaningful. To present such materials without preparation for them or opportunities to do something with them is also doubtful practice. The values of using audio-visual materials are not inherent in the materials themselves but rather accrue from the practices that accompany their use.

Using Motion Pictures, Film Strips, and Slides. Each type of pictorial representation has its own strengths as an aid to learning. Movies add meanings through motion, operational understandings of time factors and processes, reproductions of total events. Film strips and slides give continuity and yet may be manipulated at a rate of speed that permits careful study and discussion of each picture. These materials may also be so made that they magnify details, thus providing for greater clarity, dramatic effect, and hence more accurate understanding. In other words, each of these materials offers its own potentialities. The teacher's first task is to analyze desirable characteristics in order to capitalize upon the unique strengths of each.

Before using such materials with children, you should preview them thoughtfully to be sure that they are suitable to your needs. While catalogs, guides, and reviews will help you to locate materials, it is unsafe to rely upon them completely to determine suitability of content. What appears in printed descriptions to be just what you are looking for, in actuality may be unsuited to the developmental level of the children, misdirected in emphasis, outdated, poorly photographed, or inartistically made. A small committee of children, previewing the material with you, could help in evaluating its potential usefulness with the group.

The mechanics of showing the visual aid must be satisfactorily arranged. Ineffectual handling of mechanical details will detract from the effective employment of the medium. Seating, lighting, the general operation of the machine, and the changing of the film or slides must be so managed that the full attention of the children can be concentrated on the pictorial presentation itself. Delays may arise from difficulties with equipment, from lack of sufficient foresight in planning for the comfort and health of the group, or from circumstances that could not have been foreseen. These delays in themselves may be creatively utilized as a kind of educational experience for children. For example, replacing a projector bulb, raising some windows, eliminating a ray of light, repairing a break in the film can become the science interests temporarily explored while the difficulty is being eliminated as rapidly as possible.

After the preliminary mechanical preparation, you will need to make final preparations with the children for this new experience in viewing. Perhaps you will want to recall with the children why they are seeing this visual aid, point out things particularly to anticipate, and indicate in advance some significant ideas for which the group may be watching. Perhaps the committee that previewed the material will want to raise some questions that may be taken up after the pictorial presentation has been seen. Perhaps the group can work out together some things that they hope the pictorial material may help them in comprehending more fully. In any event, the children should not be just "thrown" into seeing a movie, a film strip, or slides. They should be prepared to look at such materials purposefully, critically, insightfully.

Furthermore, the group should be readied to utilize each pictorial presentation both for the new learnings it can bring to them and for their growth in critical evaluation of the medium itself. For example, one group of eleven-year-olds, carrying on a broad-unit study on "Latin American Neighbors," viewed a film about growing bananas. Several new ideas came to the group: "Bananas grow 'upside down'"; "Tarantulas and sharp knives endanger the workers"; "Workers live in poverty." The children discussed eagerly these new ideas and made plans to learn more about them. In critical evaluation of the film, several of the group asked questions that revealed concern that more views were not included of the workers' homes and family life. They thought that the beauty of the product to be marketed was highlighted, while the ugliness of the workers' lives was obviously underplayed.

You must decide whether or not discussion can well be carried on concurrently with the viewing. During the showing of a motion picture, discussion is seldom practicable. But, with film strips or slides, it is frequently desirable. If there is to be concurrent discussion, it should not be left to chance. It should be so planned in advance that verbalization adds pointedly to the visual presentation. If discussion is to go on currently with the viewing, the teacher needs to have well in mind key topics or questions around which the discussion will center and develop.

Following the showing, the group will need to synthesize or summarize what they have seen. They will need to consider how this experience has contributed to their study. They may have cause to evaluate the visual presentation itself. Sometimes at this point controversies arise, with differing viewpoints or interpretations of what has been seen. In such cases it may be well to see again those parts of the film strip or the particular slides that have been used. In the case of longer motion pictures, the decision of whether or not to see the film again may depend upon the importance of the issues raised, of the misunderstandings that have arisen, or of the oversights of many of the group. The decision con-

cerning a repeat performance must be made with the group in the light of the purposes which such a repetition would serve.

Using Flat Pictures and Photographs. Pictures clipped from newspapers, magazines, advertisers' brochures, book jackets, as well as photographs may be used effectively in teaching. Whereas paintings or drawings are artists' conceptions, photographs are mechanical versions of reality. Children will frequently need help in differentiation between the two.

For bulletin board displays, for use by committee groups, for projection on a screen, for discussion by the whole group, pictures may contribute significantly to learning. They may be used to enrich, explain, or vivify reading; to substitute for reading; to introduce or motivate further study; to correct mistaken notions; to create moods or impel feelings; to summarize, synthesize, or recapitulate ideas; to entertain. Because such materials do translate words into vivid, visual pictures, they help the learner to see clearly what he might otherwise just hazily comprehend and they help him comprehend what he might not otherwise be able to visualize at all.

However, as a mere hodgepodge, pictures will be of little use. As you begin your collection of such materials, you will want to be selective. You will want to think through the categories and classifications that will be most helpful to you in terms of the use which you will make of these teaching aids. The following list suggests some of the most useful categories of picture collections for the elementary-school teacher:

1. *Special Holidays:* Hallowe'en, Thanksgiving, Christmas, Valentine Day, Arbor Day
2. *Interesting Personalities:* Discoverers, Historical Characters, Children's Writers, Inventors, Musicians
3. *Seasonal Appeals:* Harvest Scenes, Autumn Foliage, Winter Sports, Rain or Snow, Spring Planting, Camping and Fishing
4. *Science Interests:* Animals, Birds, Trees, Plants, Insects, Machines, Erosion, New Discoveries
5. *Interesting Places:* Cities, Natural Wonders, Famous Buildings, Parks, Historical Shrines
6. *Peoples of the Earth:* Indians, Europeans, Orientals, South Americans
7. *Pictorial Materials for Unit Studies:* The Home, Community Helpers, The State, The Region, Fuels, Transportation, Communication
8. *Commemorative Events:* Landing at Plymouth Rock; Signing the Declaration of Independence; Joining the Transcontinental Railroads; First Flight at Kitty Hawk
9. *Special Geographical Areas:* Cotton Farming, the Corn Belt, Coastal Regions, Desert Living, The Rocky Mountains.

Not only is it helpful to collect your pictures around broad categories but it is also worth the time it takes to classify them within these broad categories. This is especially true since the collections you start during

your student teaching may be helpful to you during your busy first year of teaching.

In using well-chosen pictures, the teacher must keep in mind the functions for which they are being used. Pictures are used purposefully:

1. In the process of choosing a group enterprise.
2. For verification in technical disagreements or misunderstandings.
3. In elaborating meanings.
4. In activities of broad units of work.
5. As interest-promoting, motivating devices.
6. For aesthetic appreciation and enjoyment.
7. To show steps in processes or time sequences.

How pictures and photographs are used depends on the purposes of the group and the planning which they do for the use of them in their study. Picture displays on fixed or portable bulletin boards are especially useful for motivational purposes, for introducing topics, as well as for summarization or recapitulation. For some aspects of the study, particular pictures may be utilized by committees and individuals as backgrounds for their research and as part of their report to the group. For a thorough consideration and discussion of one aspect of the study by the whole group, the use of the opaque projector may serve best.

Care should be given to the mechanics of using pictures. In using bulletin board displays, pictures should be grouped and labeled so that the child can readily "make sense" of the groupings. Individual children and committees using pictures should be helped to present them in an effective sequence, to show them at the appropriate time in the report, and to display them in such a way that the group gets meaning from being able to see them well. If pictures are put in scrapbooks or notebooks, they should be grouped and arranged so that the cumulative pictorial effect is significant. When pictures are shown on a screen, they again should be so ordered and so skilfully presented and explained that the experience remains a vivid one. In other words, you never just show pictures and hope that they will be effectual. As you teach, you guide children in learning what to look for in pictures, how to study pictures, how to evaluate them, and how to present them effectively to others.

Children should be encouraged to participate actively in locating, classifying, mounting, and displaying pictures and photographs. In this way one not only builds up a collection of valuable instructional materials, but also gives children an experience in judging the quality, usefulness, and accuracy of pictorial representations; encourages children to learn to see more than the superficial; and helps them develop or further individual interests and hobbies.

Using Visual Symbols. When you use maps, charts, sketches, diagrams, cartoons, posters, and graphs, you must remember that these differ

markedly from the pictorial materials previously discussed. Whereas the motion picture, filmstrip, flat picture, and photograph are largely reproductions of things that can actually be seen, these latter pictorial devices are symbols. They do not have as their purpose the direct reproduction of reality; their purpose is to represent in simple conventionalized symbolic form some aspect of or judgment about reality. Viewed thus, these materials never take the place of pictorial reproductions, but they may be a very important adjunct to them. Moreover, they frequently prove to be indispensable as time-savers, concept-builders, and thought-stimulators.

Posters, comic strips, sketches, and cartoons are practically always for or against something. They are made to develop in others emotionalized attitudes or strong feelings. They always are intended to communicate general ideas. When you use such materials with children, you must help them to see what the makers were for or against. You will need to help them understand that one must think when he views such materials or he may be unwittingly propagandized. You may be able to guide them in interpreting the symbolization itself: Uncle Sam, the frowning coffee pot, the Republican elephant, the Democratic donkey, the American eagle, the horse as "man's friend." As children view such materials or make their own posters, comic strips, sketches, and cartoons, you will have many opportunities to help them learn how such visual symbols are used to drive home one main idea. They should learn, too, how the visual appeals of color, arrangement, and wording may influence the feelings of people.

Flat maps are symbolizations of physical territory—of the earth's surface or some part of it. Maps may represent locations, relative sizes, positions, or distance. They may show trade and transportation routes; geographical, economic, and political divisions; community locations; and water as well as land bodies. They may be crude hand-drawn oversimplifications; decorative picturizations; basic outlines; or technically accurate representations. Maps may very well be purposeful instruments for helping children to understand the earth as it is, as a springboard for reflective thinking, as a source of important research data, and as an outlet for children's creative self-expression.

There are two important aspects of using maps in teaching: the study of maps made by experts and map-making by the children themselves. Making maps not only helps children to appreciate the intricacy of the process but it also helps them to understand what a map is and what it should represent. Moreover, map-making gives children practical experiences with relative distances, geographical positions, land contour, and the like.

As you use expertly made maps with children, you will need to use

for different purposes various kinds: physical, commercial or economic, political, or those that combine these various representations all in one. Such flat maps, in terms of forms now available, may be wall maps, maps in books or atlases, or relief maps. In addition, maps on curved surfaces, such as globes, are useful in the study of aerial distance, time relations, or the relations of continents on the earth's surface. You will, of course, begin with simple maps for younger children and develop therefrom their abilities in interpreting increasingly more difficult symbols. By way of readiness in using maps, the teacher of young children may well use very simple maps of the school grounds or the route from the school to a near-by point of interest.

The kinds of maps used and the amount of interpretation should be based on sound principles of child development and the social orientation of children. As you work with maps in your group, you will be able to help children learn how economical of time and energy intelligent interpretation of maps may be: how maps may be used in research and in verification of ideas; how map forms are changing in the present "air age"; and how maps frequently need supplementation in reading and picture to give the user clearer understandings than the map alone can give.

There are also many types of charts and graphs which you will use with children. Graphs are used to show ideas of quantity in visual form, such as school population increase, local county wheat production, children's weight gains, or schoolroom temperature. Charts "map out" ideas about anything that is not geographical or statistical, such as a well-balanced meal, the classroom committee or local government organization, fur-bearing animals, or uses of oil and coal. Charts are used to organize, summarize, compare and contrast, attractively and clearly in concise form, materials from various fields of subject matter. Some commercially made charts and graphs may aid you in your work with children. You may be called upon to construct others yourself. But do not overlook opportunities for giving children experiences in making charts and graphs of their own.

In chart and graph construction, clarity is most essential. Does this chart or graph show quickly, efficiently, and succinctly what its maker purposes to show? In addition to clarity, "eye appeal" is a second major consideration. Is this chart or graph so aesthetically satisfying in appearance that children want to work with it?

As you utilize charts and graphs in your teaching, many of the suggestions made previously are applicable to these visual symbols also. They may be used by individuals, committees, or the whole group. They must be so constructed and so placed that they are easily read and attractively displayed. They must be gauged in content to the level of thinking of

those who use them. They must be functionally utilized so that children grow not only in their knowledge but also in their abilities to use these instructional materials effectively.

Using Recordings and Radio. Addressed primarily to the ear, radio and recordings are useful materials for facilitating the learning of children. Children are already very familiar with these media in their out-of-school life. They can be guided, through the in-school use of these media, both in more meaningful listening experiences and in the development of more discriminative taste.

Children's recordings are being utilized by modern teachers particularly in the fields of the appreciation of music and literature, since most children's records at the present time are limited to dramatized or narrated stories, poetry, and vocal and instrumental music. These materials, however, cover such broad areas of choice that they can be creatively utilized to enrich a unit of work, a subject-matter topic, or a focal interest. In a study of *farm life*, or *railroads*, or *Mexico*, for example, recordings of stories, poems, folk songs, and instrumental music may well be included for broadening children's insights and deepening their appreciations of what is being learned.

In selecting recordings for use with the group, you will want to be sure that they are suitable to the developmental level of the children and presented at the time when the children are psychologically ready to hear them. There are many poor recordings for children on the market today. Therefore another important matter in selection is that of taste. Whenever a recording is utilized, it should contribute to discriminative taste in listening. The quality of the recording—distinct tone and diction, and freedom from blut and scratching—should be given careful consideration. Selection also involves preparation for use. Even when children bring recordings from their home collections, some kind of "pre-hearing" and evaluation needs to be done. Some recordings are so bad that children should not be exposed to them at school. In these "pre-hearing" experiences, you may be able to have a committee of children listen with you and judge the effectiveness and value to the group as a whole.

Whether, in the actual presentation, you are to use a single recording or a group of recordings will make a difference in your preparation. Before the presentation, you will have two major responsibilities: to see that the equipment is ready for use and to prepare the group for the listening. The management of equipment is quite simple, but you will need to do more than take for granted that it is ready. In preparing the group for listening, you may need to recall with the children why you have planned to use these recordings, what they may get from this listening experience, and the like. What these "pre-listening" activities will be depends upon the purposes and interests of the group whom you teach.

One necessary caution is that children may need to hear and then re-hear the recording. You must remember that in such listening experiences there is the added difficulty that children cannot see facial expressions, bodily movements, "backdrops," or properties. They must get meaning without the help of visual images. The implications of this fact for thoroughness of preparation for listening, repetition of the recording, and the amount that one expects children to get from the experience are important considerations for the teacher to take realistically into account.

During the playing of the recording you may want first to hear it straight through. However, with skillful management, you can stop the disk at any time and re-play a part for emphasis, or pause for group discussion. When the latter plan is used, the children should have the satisfaction at some time of listening to the whole recording without interruption.

Following the playing of the disk, you frequently have splendid opportunities for purposeful "post-listening" activities: discussion or conversation; oral interpretation of related prose or poetry; creative expression of children in original art work in drawing, writing, or music; and plans for further study or recreational reading.

While recordings can be used at any time you need them, radio listening is a matter of close time-scheduling. Planning for radio listening means that you have to know what is going to be available at a given time and then to utilize the program without "pre-hearing," for what it may be worth. Two types of radio listening are at your disposal: in-school and out-of-school. For in-school listening experiences, a survey of what your local stations are presenting regularly for children during school hours will first have to be made. In addition, alertness on your part to the occasional, special-events program will be beneficial. In using out-of-school radio programs, a log of desirable home listening experiences can be kept in the room and the results of the children's listening can be shared.

The principles that guide your in-school listening to radio programs are much the same as those suggested for the use of recordings. The "pre-listening" period involves getting the equipment ready for use and preparing the children for the listening experience. Since it is impossible to hear this program a second time, the setting must be one that encourages each child to give his full attention to the broadcast. The physical comfort of the children must be well provided for as well as the development of a psychological readiness to listen. Again, you will be able to utilize the broadcast for functional "post-listening" activities of the kinds suggested for recordings: verbal consideration of the ideas presented, creative self-expression in various art media, and further reading and study experiences stimulated by the broadcast.

As you guide children in such listening experiences, you will want to remember that evaluation involves both the content of the recording or radio program and the medium of communication itself. Thus children learn not only to turn to these media for useful knowledge and delightful entertainment but also to develop greater discrimination and taste in selection.

Building a Kit of Materials. As you do your student teaching, you are wise if you build up a kit of materials in visual and auditory aids. There are many kinds of useful materials that you might well include in such a kit:

1. Publishers' catalogs of equipment and supplies
2. Files of free and inexpensive materials
3. Lists of sources of suggestive materials used during your student teaching
4. Classified picture files
5. Postcard collections
6. Samples of various kinds of charts: reading, number, time lines, and so on
7. Samples of maps: road maps, pictorial maps, and so on
8. Samples of different kinds of graphs: bar graphs, circle graphs, line graphs
9. Teacher's manuals for in-school listening to radio programs
10. Sources of various kinds of recordings.

Such materials will not only serve you during your student teaching but will also be very valuable in your later teaching experience. To have such material readily available will be a time-saver during your busy first year of teaching.

USING MATERIALS FOR AESTHETIC EXPERIENCES

In older school practices, aesthetic experiences were chiefly confined to the patterning of children's work in expression and to analyzing the art products of great masters in appreciation. The modern elementary school encourages children themselves to create in various media with originality and individuality and to enjoy works of art as integrated aesthetic experiences. Large blocks of time are allocated for such significant learnings so that children will have ample opportunity to explore the materials of various media for creative self-expression and aesthetic enjoyment. In the modern school, there must be provision of time and materials for both "producer" and "consumer" aesthetic experiences in music, the dance, the graphic arts, dramatics, and written expression.

Developing a Setting for Aesthetic Experiences. Since—both as a "producer" and as a "consumer" of art experiences—the child is being creative, the atmosphere must be conducive to originality of thought and action. Creativity does not thrive in a regimented, repressive atmosphere. Rather,

freedom to think and to create must be actively encouraged. This calls for a setting that gives a workshop-laboratory-studio atmosphere, where materials are readily available, where there is choice among the media to be employed for expression and communication, where individuality in products is prized, where explorations of unique processes are encouraged, where exhibition of products is voluntary. In such an informal atmosphere, children are encouraged to set for themselves worthy tasks, and make plans commensurate with their interests, their abilities, their level of development, and their tastes. They are free to use those materials and create those things which satisfy their needs. In such an atmosphere, there is free communication of ideas between workers; coöperation rather than competition in the completion of products; constructive appraisal of work done; encouragement not only to deepen their experiences in one medium but also to broaden out and explore many avenues of creative expression.

The rôle of the teacher in such a setting is both vital and stimulating. He introduces new media at appropriate times. He sees that ample supplies are on hand. He discusses, encourages, answers questions, listens to the children as they work. He helps them evaluate their progress. He assists them in planning to exhibit their work. He encourages the thoughtful sharing of materials, mutual helpfulness, free exchange of ideas, and respect for the creative efforts of others. While he avoids tampering with or dominating the creations of individual children, at appropriate times he may participate actively in group aesthetic experiencing.

An atmosphere for creativity is as much one of spirit as of physical conditions. You will share in the responsibility for seeing that appropriate materials are ready. You will so arrange time that some art experiences are projections of individual or group needs or interests and that others are integrated in on-going enterprises in the room. You will have opportunities to encourage children in further development of their unique abilities. You may even help children uncover previously unrealized potentialities. You will be able to guide children in their exploration and appreciation of art processes as well as art products; to paint as well as appreciate the paintings of peers and great masters; to compose as well as get meaning and pleasure from the compositions of others.

In an atmosphere that encourages freedom of subject and the selection of the appropriate medium for the expression of that subject, there is created a studio in the classroom. In the situation which encourages the exploration of many media from various art fields of endeavor, there is created a laboratory in the classroom. In the setting where individuals learn together by working out plans, carrying them through, and evaluating both the process and the product as consumer and producer, there is created a workshop in the classroom. And therein the teacher gets

stimulating satisfaction in making the conditions conducive to aesthetic enjoyment, in freeing children in artistic expression, and in helping children develop self-confidence and creative power in various art media.

Using Appropriate Media of Expression. The modern teacher must recognize the major areas of self-expression adaptable to the elementary-school child. He must also know the media of expression and communication that are suitable for effective manipulation by children, are challenging to the interests of individuals, and are stimulating to the broad exploration of various art forms. The following guides are presented to help you in planning the use of instructional materials in the arts:

1. *Make provision for creativity in the graphic arts.* In the graphic arts children find a natural outlet for their feelings, interests, and impressions. They like to paint, model with clay, draw, and construct. They explore a great variety of materials for self-expression: paints, finger paints, crayons, chalk, wood, leather, cloth, metal. They enjoy the processes of working in these media for their own sakes, without too much thought as to the product which will emerge. They create products satisfying at their own aspiration levels. Experiences in the graphic arts frequently become group records of learnings from broad units of work or subject areas. In the graphic-arts experiences in the elementary school there are chiefly two types of products: individual creations and group art projects. Murals, roller movies, puppet shows, and the like are frequently the products which emerge from coöperative endeavor in group art projects.

2. *Provide experiences in creative writing.* Through creative writing children are provided purposeful experiences in preserving records of happenings, in sharing ideas, and in expressing feelings, aspirations, or moods. Children of elementary-school age enjoy creating both in prose and poetry. In a permissive atmosphere, they willingly participate both in group and individual writing. In the early school years, before the children are able to write, spell, and punctuate, they dictate their creative writing to the teacher. From such beginnings children grow into more independent uses of the skills of written expression. In prose, children can be encouraged to explore various forms: storytelling, description, letter-writing, labels, slogans, announcements. In poetry, children frequently utilize free-verse forms as readily as rhymed forms if they are not taught specifically that poetry must rhyme. Children's creative writing is frequently utilized in room or school newspapers, school literary brochures or magazines, or original booklets made for the room library.

3. *Give children outlet in creative experiences with music.* The natural responses of children to music are enthusiastic. Through it they find an effective means of release. Moreover, music has a socializing effect upon the group. Singing is creative in that the interpretation which one group gives a song will not necessarily be that which another group would give the same song. This is similarly true of the listening experiences to music which are provided for children in the school. Children are also responsive in original creation in music, particularly in the writing of original songs and in playing upon simple instruments. Original tunes for songs may be the work of either an individual or a group of children. Learning to blend tones with others may be provided through rhythm bands, toy orchestras, and the use of other simple instruments.

Again, the process values are as important as the products. In the elementary school the first responses to music will be chiefly emotional, with intellectual response developing very gradually.

4. *See that children have appropriate experiences in rhythms and the dance.* Coordinated bodily activity and rhythmic movement are important to children. They need and enjoy the outlet of rhythms, singing games, and dancing. Through such activities children create responses to music and develop rhythmic patterns of movement that delight them. Children draw richly from their own experiences as the sources of creations. Beginning with creative rhythms in the early-elementary grades, children progress to singing games and folk dancing. These more mature creative expressions are commensurate with the growing physical abilities of children. They also open up possibilities for interpretations with regional, historical, and anthropological implications. Moreover, as group endeavors, rhythms and the dance provide fine opportunities for socialization. Rhythms and the dance are frequently utilized in room and assembly programs, parties, festivals, or holiday celebrations.

5. *Encourage dramatic play and informal creative dramatizations.* To dramatize is natural among children. They frequently pretend, with enjoyment, to be some one other than themselves. Dramatic play, the free spontaneous play imitative of adult life, is an important aspect of the growth and extension of children's personalities. Dramatization, the planned reproduction of something seen or read, differs from dramatic play chiefly in that it is developed with individual interpretations fitting into the over-all design. Through both these outlets for creative expression the child is given opportunities to gain in poise, in coöperation with others, in facility in language, and in the release of dramatic talents. Moreover, through these means the teacher is able frequently to make important observations concerning the child's interpretation of his environment, his social relations with others, his responses to living. In the later-elementary grades, dramatization may be utilized as a way in which to gain insight into the living of other peoples. Through dramatizing, children can give expression to the impressions they have gained through reading, viewing, and hearing about how people in other times or in other places have lived. Freedom to pretend naturally is the key to successful dramatization in the elementary school.

"Consumer" experiences will further heighten children's sensitivity to and taste in art products. Some of these consumer experiences may well be included in the broad unit of work; others may relate to seasons, holidays, or special events. Still other art products may be used simply for the sheer delight they will bring as the children and teacher enjoy them together.

The kinds of materials that you may utilize effectively for consumer experiences include the following:

1. *The graphic arts furnish many kinds of materials of appreciation.* In this field, the teacher has a great variety of resources: pictures, prints, photographs; wood products; samples of weaving, cloth design, ceramics, folk-craft art objects.
2. *Literature contributes significantly to appreciation.* Through reading, story-telling, and book discussions, the teacher may utilize: appropriate

prose and poetry selections; beautiful editions of books; recordings; story and poetry radio programs for in-school listening.

3. *Music materials enhance children's appreciation.* Here the teacher can himself make a contribution if he is a musician. Then, too, he can invite soloists or instrumentalists to perform for the group; he can bring in recordings; he can utilize music radio programs for in-school listening.
4. *Materials in rhythms and the dance may be provided for appreciation.* While this is perhaps more difficult for the teacher to accomplish, he can at appropriate times provide still pictures, slides, and motion pictures that show "the poetry in motion" of the human body, of basic dance steps, of interpretative postures and gestures. He may also be able to introduce from the local community artists who give recitals in various forms of the dance.
5. *Materials for the appreciation of dramatics may also be presented to the children.* In this field, the teacher may interpret for the children dramatic scenes or incidents himself. He may invite skilled speakers to present dramatic readings to the group. He may also use films, recordings, radio dramatizations, puppet or marionette shows in the classroom or auditorium, or he may take the group to children's theater productions.

In your work with children, undoubtedly much time will be spent in children's own creating. However, if you would give children a balanced school experience in the arts, to neglect the art appreciation experiences is to rob children of opportunities to become cultured, interesting personalities.

As the child experiences the satisfactions of working and living in a school environment that fosters aesthetic enjoyments, he learns to identify himself with the beautiful. He derives deep satisfactions from expressing important personal meanings and feelings. He comes to a fuller comprehension that art is one of man's significant ways of preserving his achievements, his beautiful moments, and his feelings. He develops genuine discriminative taste and an experimental attitude toward new media and new modes of expression.

Freeing Children to Be Creative. Either directly or indirectly, adults are frequently guilty of curbing or handicapping children's creativity. Little children fearlessly explore aesthetic outlets as long as they are not taught to repress their creative ideas and their individual self-expression of those ideas. Some of the direct means by which adults teach children to be over-cautious, uncertain, or even fearful in their uses of various media of expression are these:

1. Dominating the child's expression of ideas
2. Setting too high standards of accomplishment
3. Placing too great premium on perfect products
4. Giving patterns or models to be followed
5. Emphasizing skills and techniques too early or too exclusively
6. Comparing unfavorably one child's work with another's

7. Frowning on the exploratory and individualistic uses of a medium of expression
8. Insisting on the child's completion of every art product which he undertakes
9. Ridiculing the child's efforts.

Indirectly adults may thwart children in their creativity by:

1. Asking "What is it?"
2. Expecting the child's art products to be always conventional and easily recognizable.
3. Giving little or no attention to the child's work in process or in product.
4. Commending only that which the adult understands or approves.
5. Surrounding the child always with the traditional patterns and conventional forms of artistic expression.
6. Deriding all unconventional art products.
7. Discouraging the child with "faint praise."
8. Treating art as a fad or frill.

As you work toward freeing children to be creative, you will do more than merely avoid the pitfalls mentioned above. Constructively, you will:

1. Help children to see that they have had experiences worth preserving and can express them in artistic form.
2. Guide children in making plans for their creative self-expression.
3. Introduce each new medium of expression joyfully and with sufficient suggestions for its possible uses that children eagerly anticipate working in it.
4. Present techniques functionally, in relation to the problems that children are facing and at the times when, psychologically, children are ready to profit most from them.
5. Prize individuality of products and try to understand why a child has chosen to produce as he has.
6. Guide the child to see potentialities in the medium of expression which he himself has not realized.
7. Help the child when he is becoming overly discouraged or is blocked as to "next steps."
8. Direct evaluations so that children see more that is desirable in their artistic creations than they have been able to recognize by themselves.
9. Encourage the child to talk about, to further interpret, his art products if and when he wishes to do so.

Such an approach to artistic creation does not result in inferior products, as many seem to fear. Quite the reverse is true. When artists are asked to choose the outstanding work of children, invariably they discard the stereotyped, the patterned, the adult-dominated, and seek out for commendation the uninhibited, the free, and the experimental. Artists explain that the best way to present beauty is to perceive acutely and to present that perception honestly with uniqueness and well-integrated individuality. The modern teacher takes his clues from this same ap-

proach to children's self-expression. He does not "teach" the arts. He nourishes the talents of children as artists in a "lush" environment for artistic outlet.

In guiding children in consumer art activities the modern teacher recognizes that these, too, demand a creative use of intelligence. He avoids such pitfalls as:

1. *Analyzing and dissecting great works of art*
2. *Confusing the history of the arts and the lives of the artists with art appreciation*
3. *Demanding agreement with the teacher's judgments in matters of taste*
4. *Testing children on the "facts" of the arts*
5. *Expecting children to say, dishonestly, that they like what they know they are expected to like*
6. *Presenting materials for appreciation that are beyond or below the maturation level of the children*
7. *Requiring rote memorization in art fields which lend themselves to this undesirable practice*
8. *Giving children the idea that all great art has been produced in the past.*

In place of such mechanical or abstract means of attempting to induce appreciation, the modern teacher:

1. *Selects materials for appreciation that are purposefully related to the ongoing experiences of the children and suitable to the developmental level and taste of the group.*
2. *Develops children's discrimination in taste by small steps rather than by broad jumps.*
3. *Encourages children to express their reactions to and critical thinking about the materials presented for appreciation.*
4. *Relates artistic productions in such various fields of endeavor as the graphic arts, literature, music, and the dance in meaningful combinations.*
5. *Exhibits art products attractively for children's pleasure and enjoyment.*
6. *Operates in ways which demonstrate that in matters of taste there can be no rigid "standards."*
7. *Guides children toward the realization that intelligent, genuine discrimination is the goal of appreciation rather than sham or pretense in matters of taste.*
8. *Stimulates the children to see the beauty, and uses for appreciation the materials, found in their own environment.*

As you consider paintings, ceramics, music, literature, or dramatizations with the children, there are no pat lesson patterns which you can use. Rather, with a particular group of children whose levels of appreciation you recognize, you must create appropriate methods and techniques of presentation that simultaneously catch the mood of the situation, encourage children's honest considerations of the artistic creation, and extend their opportunities to develop in discriminating taste.

Thus your primary aim in freeing children to be creative is not to

produce child prodigies. Rather it is to make the most of each child's potentialities, to give children opportunities to share talents, skills, and abilities in group art experiences, and to further encourage children to deliberate critically both at the expressional and communication levels in various art media.

Utilizing Criticism Constructively. Probably the most difficult problem which the teacher faces in guiding children in aesthetic experiences is what to do about criticism. Unwisely handled, criticism thwarts or intimidates children and markedly decreases their willingness to attempt creative expression. Destructive criticism teaches children to separate artificially the skills of expression from the ideas in the creation. It encourages destruction of individual and group pride in products. Or it may give children only mechanical patterns for considering the work of others. All too frequently one hears, in periods of criticism, only such negative comments as: "He should have said ~~were~~ instead of ~~was~~ in the second sentence." "Her poem doesn't rhyme." "He painted the windows in his house too high." "She doesn't know her part in the play well enough."

On the other hand, constructive criticism helps the child to be enthusiastic about improving his abilities in the arts. It teaches him to trust his creations to the scrutiny of his peers and to profit from group consideration of his plans, processes, and products. It teaches him to be responsible to his peers for helping them improve. It teaches him to consider each new art product as a unique whole, with skills interrelated with ideas; with critical consideration of what the producer has attempted to achieve; with genuine but sensitive appraisal of how well the producer has achieved what he set out to do. Constructive criticisms are punctuated by such positive comments as: "Jim has improved in playing his part. He acts the character more." "I can always tell Mary's stories. Her descriptions give you swell word pictures." "Jack stays right with the music most of the time now." "Would it be a good suggestion if you ended your poem with this idea?" "While I never saw a sky that color, it's an interesting way to do it." "Could you make the puppet's nose more pointed so it looks more like a witch?"

As you guide children in becoming constructive critics, here are some practical ways to proceed:

2. *Guide peer criticism in such ways that the child can accept it graciously.* Sometimes children, in learning to be constructive, make devastating blunders. Here the teacher must help out. He can re-phrase the comment more adeptly. He can suggest and expect that inferred inadequacies be accompanied by specific suggestions for improvement. He can help children relate their criticisms of discrete parts to the more significant whole. He can come to the defense of the child whose work is being negatively criticized and point up the strengths of the creation. He can firmly step in and put a stop to particularly ruthless or flippant remarks. He can summarize, with the group, the strengths upon which the child may build in his further work and the suggestions for making the creation even more effectual.

3. *Establish with the children a code of criticism.* When the teacher has worked through several periods of criticism with the group, he may find it desirable to set up with them a set of criteria by which the children can gauge their effectiveness in offering and accepting criticism. These criteria should be coöperatively worked out, based on ideas suitable to the developmental level of the group, and expressed in language that is clear, concise, and meaningful to the children. As children develop in critical sensitivity, the code may be modified through deletions or the additions of new ideas. Such a set of criteria may help children improve rapidly in their abilities as critics.

4. *Create such an atmosphere that children seek the criticism of the group.* If a congenial spirit is established, children will seek the advice and criticism of others in achieving the best results of creative endeavors. A child will seek the best thinking of the group as his work is in process. He will bring his problems to the group for their constructive suggestions. He will submit his rough plans for group consideration.

At first perhaps only a few will be able to do this; but as others see the values of such service, they too will be stimulated to ask for group examination of many of their creations. While this type of critical appraisal cannot be forced upon a group, the teacher can begin by offering children the opportunity for such constructive help and can develop an atmosphere that makes criticism an essential part of the arts program.

5. *Time periods for criticism wisely.* If criticism is to be constructive, careful timing is a major consideration. Teachers must remember that, when a child has just completed an art product, he is satisfied with it or he would not present it. It is, as a general rule, unwise to criticize immediately following the completion of a child's creation. Criticism should be offered while the work is in progress so that something can still be done about it or deferred until long enough after completion that criticism can be taken objectively. When enough time has elapsed, the child may even be able to offer suggestions himself.

6. *Avoid grades or extrinsic awards as criticisms.* In patterned art work, where a standard to be met is prescribed, teachers have regularly graded the products. In creative art work, where each product imposes its own standards, grades are a vicious denial of the spirit of creativity. Teacher comments, either verbal or written, may be very helpful to the child in interpreting the teacher's judgment of his success, but cold, standardized grades or other forms of extrinsic awards cheapen unnaturally the spirit of creativeness. One does not dance for an "A," compose poetry for an "S," or participate in painting a mural for a "Fair." Such practices are destructively critical; they place self-expression on a competitive scale of merit that is indefensible. To grade

creative work is as inappropriate as to score arithmetically the grace with which one presides at a tea table.

Thus criticism finds a realistic place in the utilization of materials for aesthetic enjoyment. In a studio-workshop-laboratory setting—where a wide variety of producer and consumer media of expression are wisely, regularly used, and where planning, freedom of expression, and constructive criticism are prized—children of elementary-school age do become creators in the best sense of the word. They are comfortably “at home” in many fields of artistic endeavor, intelligent about and sympathetic with the creative processes through which the art of a culture is born and continues to thrive.

USING PRINTED MATERIALS

Traditionally the school has been primarily concerned with printed symbols, particularly as they appear in books. The school of the past was chiefly a reading school. Modern schools consider reading matter only one of the important learning materials. They seek to provide many different kinds of reading materials—materials for directed reading and free reading, for informational and recreational reading. In fact, among the most valued instructional materials in the modern schoolroom are the books, pamphlets, booklets, clippings, newspapers, and magazines that regularly make their distinctive contributions in the education of children of elementary-school age. Thus the modern school fully recognizes the need for the use of printed symbols in the lives of boys and girls. Carefully selected and wisely used printed matter is indispensable to you in your daily work with children.

A Modern Setting for Reading. Great quantities of research are now available concerning the reading process. Modern administrators and teachers utilize this research in creating a desirable setting for reading. They realize that the two chief considerations determining whether or not children read are, first, the immediate availability of many kinds of printed matter that meet the needs and interests of the children and, second, the use of materials on different levels of difficulty so that every child in the group can have reading experiences from which he can get meaning. This demands a well-kept room library of many attractive materials. It means also that children are encouraged to read material written on their accomplishment levels. These materials should include both single copies for individual use and small sets for committee or other small-group study. There should be several books and articles on the same topic so that children will learn early not to rely on a single authority. The child needs to learn that it is wise to compare, contrast, and think critically about what different writers have to say. Such

comparative reading helps children understand the many forms in which meanings can be conveyed.

In a modern setting, then, an adequate room library is of prime importance, with a balance of materials for directed and free reading, for informational and recreational reading, for easy reading and more challenging reading, for the reading of prose and poetry, for more than one reference on a given topic. In a modern setting, also, the child is taught not only how to read but also how long to read; not only where to read but also when to read; not only what to read but also how much to read. Thus the rôle of the teacher in teaching children to read is primarily that of guiding children in getting meanings from printed symbols and in thinking critically about those meanings. Skills of reading are of little import if there is unthinking acceptance of every thing read as law and gospel by children. If real reading is taking place, children think as they read and read to think. This, rather than "word calling," is always the prime purpose of reading in the modern elementary school.

Reading Materials Available for Use. The modern school is fortunate in having many well-written and well-made printed materials for use with children. Teachers are really no longer limited to use of a single book in any subject-matter area. They can employ many materials by many authorities in place of reliance on one. They can give the group broad reading in many areas of interest and deep reading in those areas that are purposeful and needful to individuals or small groups. In giving children stimulating and worthwhile reading, here are some guides for the use of various kinds of printed matter:

1. *Use textbook materials functionally.* Every elementary school has provided in some way textbooks for the children's use. These materials are usually written around subject areas and are graded according to what the authors presume is suitable for children at a particular level of intellectual development. Each textbook is made to serve large numbers of children in different parts of the country; it cannot be made with a particular school in mind. Therefore, it becomes the responsibility of the teacher to adapt intelligently the use of textbook materials to the group whom he teaches. Some textbook materials may be suited to the needs of the whole group; but, for the most part, such books are best used in the modern schools in small sets for committee group work or individual reference. They can be used most functionally if the teacher and children select out the portions that serve their needs and if they use these materials as references and sources of help rather than as something to be followed slavishly page by page from cover to cover. Neither is there anything sacred about grade placement of these materials. To use materials either above or below the indicated grade level is defensible practice.

2. *Use supplementary books widely.* Modern publishers are producing great numbers of excellently written and beautifully made books for children not only in the field of fiction but also in such informational categories as history, geography, science, and the arts. These materials make a distinctive contribution in the education of the child. They do more than supplement

textbooks. They frequently become the chief sources to which children turn for reading in broad units of work, for the pursuit of individual interests, and for help in improving skills of reading. Since they are not labeled by grade-level placements, they avoid any stigma attached to reading "below grade level" or false pride in reading "above grade level." When written by reputable authors, they may be accepted as worthy of children's time and attention. Since they treat many topics from differing points of view, they encourage children to read widely to get their information rather than rely on a single authority.

Other types of supplementary books useful particularly in the later-elementary grades are the dictionaries, encyclopedias, and handbooks written especially with a child user in mind. Children must be helped to know how to use these materials effectively.

The modern teacher has in his room such a library of supplementary books not only for recreational reading, as important as this is, but also as primary resources for purposeful study. No modern teacher apologizes for the use of many different books rather than routinized reading by all the children from copies of the same book.

3. *Use booklets, pamphlets, clippings purposefully.* In the later-elementary grades, particularly, there are many reading materials in these briefer forms that are very useful in furthering children's learning. Generally these booklet and pamphlet materials are free or inexpensive. Clippings from newspapers, magazines, and advertising materials may be easily obtained. All such materials are most valuable when they are assembled and organized for use in relation to topics or problems suitable for children's consideration. Sometimes teachers file such materials in folders or large envelopes so that the children can locate them easily when they are needed.

In selecting these printed materials, the teacher keeps in mind the readability of the material; the attractiveness of the format; the absence of obnoxious advertising. He also evaluates the hygienic qualities of the type, margin, and paper, with particular reference to the protection of children's eyes.

Such reading materials give children, in concentrated form, current ideas on many subjects. They also have the advantage of being, for the most part, free from abstract technicalities—prepared for the general education of the layman. They are usually written in a pleasant style, in a vocabulary simple enough for the child in the later-elementary grade to read with facility. They may, therefore, be used effectively for research reading in the broad-unit of work, for individual or group reports, for the pursuit of individual interests.

4. *Use children's newspapers and magazines realistically.* Today publishers are putting out small weekly newspapers and monthly magazines suitable for use in schools. These printed materials provide children opportunities at their developmental level to become newspaper and magazine readers and to learn how to read such materials. The modern teacher takes his clues as to how to use these materials in the classroom from the ways they are read in the home. These are not to be used as exercises for practicing reading skills, for such a use defeats the purpose of "how to read" newspapers or magazines. Rather, they should be read independently and discussed in the way news stories and magazine articles and fiction are discussed in life outside the school. When they are used in this way they not only facilitate reading skill but also give children worth-while current reading content in two forms that are widely used in all life in the culture.

5. *Use workbooks discriminately.* Workbooks are predicated on assumptions that the development of skills is largely a mechanical process and have been made to provide drill materials when teachers have large groups of children. They are now available for practically every topic in the subject-centered curriculum, organized chiefly to give some practice on many discrete aspects of each topic. Workbooks range from the shoddy and poorly written to the carefully prepared, potentially useful practice materials.

Workbook materials in the modern school must be selectively used. They cannot be followed page by page by all children if learning is to be purposeful and efficient. Some children in the group will not need the workbook materials at all. Some children who need more practice in particular aspects of skills may be helped by carefully selected portions of a workbook. A few children who are ready for more advanced work in skills may be benefited by going beyond what the group as a whole is ready for.

Whenever workbooks are used, it is the teacher's job to find the materials therein that are appropriate to the individual and then supply them in sufficient amounts that enough practice is achieved. Children should never be given routinized workbook exercises to do as "busy work." Before children use any workbook materials, they should know why they are doing it; how, specifically, the exercises should be done; and what results should be accomplished therefrom. Carelessly assigned workbook exercises will frequently result in actually practising errors, in slovenly habits of work, and in dislike for practice materials. When such exercises are assigned, they should, of course, be used diagnostically and not for the purpose of determining grades or giving awards.

Using Printed Materials for Oral Reading. Many printed materials used in the modern elementary school are not suitable for oral reading. The indiscriminate use of oral reading encourages "word calling" rather than reading for meaning. It often leads to some form of vocalization in silent reading. Moreover, children must be given both silent and oral reading experiences from which they learn to use effectively the different skills necessary in reading the many kinds of printed matter which the modern classroom has available.

When, then, does one use materials for oral reading? In the first place, beginning reading materials are chiefly used orally, since oral reading is a natural step between oral self-expression and silent reading. A second use is interpretative oral reading, in which a child presents, for the enjoyment of the group, a selection in prose or poetry that demands of him his best dramatic presentation of printed matter, carefully prepared for an audience situation. A third use is the sharing of informational material that the child wishes to present to the group in the exact words of the writer. This material has been individually selected; it is material which other children do not have before them. A fourth use is the oral reading of portions of printed matter, which is in the hands of the group, to clear up misunderstandings, to verify points made in discussion, or to emphasize important considerations. In the fifth place, beyond the beginning

stages of reading instruction, oral reading may be valuable for diagnosis of remedial needs. In these cases, the oral reading is done by an individual child with the teacher and not with the peer group. Its purpose is to show the teacher where the child needs help, how he is improving, what next steps need to be taken.

As you work with children, you can help them to understand these specialized uses of oral reading and can guide them in utilizing effectively the oral-reading audience situations which are involved. The modern school recognizes the importance of effective oral reading but it eschews the indefensible practice of mechanically reading orally around the class. Effective oral reading always begins with silent reading; it always involves preparation of the printed matter so that the best oral interpretation of which the child is capable is achieved.

As a child reads orally, you will have many opportunities not only to help him get additional meaning from the printed page. You can also guide his improvement in conveying meanings to others through voice quality, pronunciation and enunciation, phrasings, and fluency. Thus the child gains power in expressing ideas well and pleasingly to others through oral reading.

Using Printed Matter for Silent Reading. Throughout the years which the child spends in the elementary school he will do much more silent reading than oral. It follows that there will be needed in the room library much printed matter that is suitable for silent reading: a little of which is supplied in sufficient quantity that the whole group has copies; more of which is available for use by groups of from six to twelve in number; most of which can be used effectively as single copies by individual children. This material should include sufficient range in readability that each child can find challenging printed matter that is gauged to his reading skill.

As you guide children in their use of silent reading materials, here are some practical suggestions for your consideration:

1. Include a balance of materials for information and recreation.
2. Select materials for which children have exhibited readiness, which are within the experiential background of the group.
3. Help children, in such areas as science, mathematics, or the social studies, to understand the vocabulary or sentence structure peculiar to the printed materials being utilized.
4. Emphasize the skills of reading when they make a difference in the ways in which children get meaning from the printed symbols.
5. Guide directed reading in such ways that children know why they are doing it, what to do, how to do it, and how to know when they have been successful.
6. Keep simple records of individuals' free reading to detect trends in recreatory reading and to guide children in selecting such material.

7. Utilize silent reading functionally to push ahead the group enterprises which have been undertaken.
8. Teach children, in terms of their developmental level, how to use efficiently the various parts of a book, such as title page, table of contents, index.
9. Help children to understand, apply to the text, and interpret the illustrations, maps, charts, or graphs included in the printed material.
10. Follow silent reading with appropriate experiences such as discussion, art work, dramatization, or interpretative oral reading, which make the reading more meaningful in the life of the group.
11. Eliminate whole-group reading from the same textbook for the purpose of drilling on particular reading skills.
12. Avoid mechanical tests or checks which are purposeless for children and may be completed without thinking, whether such tests are included in textbooks and collateral workbooks or made by the teacher.

As you utilize many and varied materials for silent reading, you will frequently have to create the best methods for employing them with the group whom you teach. While teachers' manuals may give you suggestions, they cannot be expected to meet specifically your needs in planning for your group. As you plan for and with children in silent-reading experiences, you will vary your procedures in terms of the purposes for which the children are reading, the kind of reading matter that is being utilized, and the uses to which the reading is put. Moreover, you will see many excellent opportunities to utilize printed matter interrelatedly with other learning materials. *It is only when the reader finds his bearings through seeing integrated relationships between reading and objects, qualities of objects, processes, and experiences recognizable in real life situations that sufficient meaning emerges to make reading matter significant.* Hence true reading always involves thinking. Like other worthwhile instructional materials, the teacher's chief task is to help children put meaning into the printed matter as well as take meaning from it.

As with concrete materials, audio or visual aids, and materials for aesthetic experiences, the basis for reading materials is their usefulness in meeting children's needs and purposes. The basis for their effectiveness is the children's background of experiences. The basis for continuous improvement in the use of the materials is that they "make sense" to the children using them. Only thus will your employment of all sorts of instructional materials help children to develop and keep the "inquiring mind," which is the ear-mark of an educated person.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

In your utilization of many kinds of learning materials, you can regularly evaluate both the scope and the effectiveness of their use. The following criteria should help you to taking such an inventory and in

giving you directions for further improvements in this aspect of your student-teaching experience.

1. *Selecting Learning Materials:*

In what ways have you been most effective in selecting learning materials for children as individuals and as groups? What sources of instructional materials have you utilized? What other sources do you intend to use? How are you teaching children to be selective in their choices of learning materials?

2. *Using Concrete Materials:*

State specifically the concrete materials you have employed. With what types have you been most successful? Why? How can you further improve your uses of concrete materials?

3. *Using Audio-visual Materials:*

What kinds of audio-visual materials have you already employed? What do you see as the strengths and weakness of each? Wherein can you see ways to improve your techniques of utilizing audio-visual aids? What have you so far included in your kit of materials? What help do you need in further planning for these types of experiences with children?

4. *Using Materials for Aesthetic Experiences:*

How have you contributed specifically to the creation of a setting for aesthetic experiences? What media of expression have you utilized with the group? With which have you been most successful? Why? What consumer experiences in the arts have you provided? In what ways have these consumer experiences been most meaningful to the children? Why so?

5. *Using Printed Materials:*

What reading matter do you now have available for use? What else do you need? How do you plan to get it? How have you improved your uses of textbooks? Supplementary materials? Booklets or pamphlets? Clippings? Magazines and newspapers? Workbooks? Wherein have you helped children improve most in their use of oral-reading materials? In their use of materials for silent reading?

6. *Interrelating Learning Materials:*

Specifically how have you interrelated learning materials? From such interrelationships, what have you learned that will help you further in your teaching? What help do you need for making more effective such interrelationships?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. One group of student teachers listed the following reasons for "forgetting" what they had learned in school:

- A. I forgot what did not seem important to me.
- B. I forgot what was not meaningful to me.
- C. I forgot what was unpleasant to me.
- D. I forgot what was not useful to me.
- E. I forgot what was not graphic to me.

What would you add to or delete from this list? What are the implications for the use of varied materials of instruction for effective, permanent learning?

2. A superintendent said to a prospective teacher, "A lot of these audio-visual aids seem to me to be just so many fads and frills in education." If he had said this to you, how would you have responded?

3. In the public letter-box column of a city newspaper "A Taxpayer" wrote: "Children are spending too much time in the primary grades constructing models of farms and fire stations. They are distracted from the main business of education by sawing and painting, playing games, collecting leaves and rocks, and having plants and animals at school." Are there dangers in spending too much time using such materials in the education of children?

4. Some experienced teachers insist that, since they are not creative or skillful with various art media, only specialists in the school should attempt to work with children in these art forms. What is your position on this problem?

5. What do you consider the chief obstacles to providing experiences in creative expression for elementary-school children? How could each of these obstacles be overcome or modified?

6. Contribute to the group a description of one of your most satisfying experiences in using reading materials with children. What made the experience vital for the children and you?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

AMMUNOOT, May Hill, *Children and Books* (Chicago, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1947).

To help the teacher in selecting various kinds of literature for children, this book is a comprehensive guide.

Association for Childhood Education, *This Is Reading* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1949).

This pamphlet presents a sound point of view concerning a modern program of reading in the elementary school.

BOND, Guy L. and BOND, Eva G., *Teaching the Child to Read* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1943).

For helping children with the various aspects of reading, this book gives the teacher practical suggestions. These writers give many concrete suggestions on informational reading.

BROOKS, B. Marion and BROWN, Harry A., *Music Education in the Elementary School* (Cincinnati, American Book Company, 1947).

This entire book is full of important ideas for the teacher in the elementary school. Some chapters for your reading are Chapter 9, on rhythm, Chapter 10, on song singing, and Chapter 14, on creative music.

COLL, Natalie, *The Arts in the Classroom* (New York, John Day Company, Inc., 1940).

This delightfully written book is not only inspirational; it also gives the teacher concrete illustrations of how to work with children in art experiences.

DALE, Edgar, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (New York, The Dryden Press, 1946).

This entire book will give you important help in improving your uses of auditory and visual materials in your teaching. Part II of the book is devoted practically to audio-visual teaching materials.

FALLIS, Edwin, *The Child and Things* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Company, 1940).

This little book promotes the understanding of children's tactile responses to concrete materials.

FOSTER, Josephine C. and HEABLEY, Neith E., *Education in the Kindergarten* (Cincinnati, American Book Company, 1948).

Throughout this entire book there are many suggestions for utilizing materials educatively with young children. Chapter VI deals specifically with equipping the kindergarten room.

HARAR, Henry and LANCASTER, J. H., *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials* (Nashville, Tennessee, Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Undated).

This inexpensive booklet summarizes under a wide variety of practical headings many free and low-cost materials now available for use in schools. Sources and addresses are clearly stated. Each entry is succinctly annotated.

LANORFAUX, Lillian and LEE, Doris May, *Learning to Read through Experience* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943).

For teaching beginning reading, this book is practical and sound. These writers present particularly well the construction and use of experience reading charts.

PERRINE, VanDeating, *Let the Child Draw* (Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Company, 1936).

In this little book you will find both encouragement and practical suggestions for helping children to express themselves creatively with drawing materials.

TRETT, Alvina, FREEST, June D., JACKSON, Doris C. and SAUNDERS, Dorothy Dixon, *They All Want to Write* (Indianapolis, The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1939).

This book deals with many aspects of guiding children in creative writing. The examples of children's work included may well be used with the children whom you teach.

WARD, Winifred, *Playmaking with Children* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1947).

As the name implies, this book is directed toward aiding you in planning and presenting dramatizations with children.

WOLFEL, Norman and TYLER, L. Keith, *Radio and the School* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Company, 1945).

In this book you will find Chapter 5, "How Teachers Use School Broadcasts," and Chapter 7, "Using Educational Recordings," significant in relation to your use of these media in your teaching.

CHAPTER X

Guiding Group Work

As you work with children in the modern elementary school, you come to realize how much teacher time is spent in guiding the whole group or small groups. Frequently teachers say that they have so little time to work with individuals. However, in a very real sense, group work is always individual work. Even in group-work situations, the modern teacher must conceive his rôle primarily as that of coördinating the efforts of individuals.

Group work is essential in a democratic elementary school. Modern schools are responsible for teaching children to assume shared responsibilities and to carry on coöperative activities, both of which contribute to the optimum development of the individual personality and to the common group life. Through group work children not only get important work done; they also learn the meaning of shared rôles of leadership, the responsibility inherent in freedom, the necessity of critical thinking in the solution of problems, and the need for the continuous evaluation both of the products of group action and of the processes employed.

As a student teacher, you know the need for giving children experiences in discussion, sharing, research, and independent work. You also see the need for coördinating these group experiences in such ways that they all contribute, in product and process, to the development of the individual and to the group life in the room. The following pages include practical suggestions which should help you in learning how better to guide group work during your student teaching.

THE TEACHER'S RÔLE IN GROUP WORK

Good group work is not like spontaneous combustion. It doesn't just happen. It has to be nurtured, encouraged, and developed by the teacher. It thrives in an environment in which an insightful teacher works with children in creative ways which foster "groupness." It becomes more meaningful to children as they grow in their understandings of effective ways of operating in group situations. It flourishes as children come to trust the processes of shared responsibilities in purposefully getting things done.

Some Major Principles of Group Work. In your responsibility for guiding the group work of children, you must make a choice among several rôles which the teacher may play. You might dominate the group through physical power, emotional attachment, verbal manipulation, or personal appeal. You might withdraw to the background and let the children wander whither they will, because that is what they "like" to do, or that is what they are "interested in." But you will undoubtedly want to avoid both of these rôles. Instead, you will want to assume, interdependently with the children, a responsible rôle within the group structuring—a rôle that recognizes your expert abilities to lead groups democratically. To help you define such a rôle, here are some major principles for guiding group work:

1. *Good group work originates with purposes, plans, and problems as the children see them.* One of the best ways to develop genuine group work is to start where the children are, with statements of purposes, plans, and problems in their own language. The teacher may be able so to guide children that they broaden their horizons as to purposes and procedures for accomplishing these purposes, extend their concepts of planning, and see more in their problems than they originally were able to see. But as a starting point for good group work, the teacher must genuinely accept as significant the objectives and plans of the group. As has been said so many times, the developmental level of the children indicates to the teacher what is suitable for a given group.

2. *Good group work begins by pooling the contributions of all the members of the group.* From the beginning, it is desirable that every member of the group should feel that he has an important part to play in group decision-making and group action. One very effective way for the teacher to begin group work is to lead the children to pool their contributions—to look at and think together about the whole job before attempting to attack the parts. Such a period of orientation is not wasted time. Without this, intelligent group planning is impossible. Furthermore, from this the teacher gets his clues for guiding further group work.

3. *Good group work provides appropriate responsibilities for committees and individuals.* Good group work depends on personnel as well as on purposes and procedures. When the purposes and procedures are clearly defined, the next question inevitably is "Who is to do what?" There are many responsibilities in group work which must be assumed by the group as a whole. In these instances, use of personnel resources calls for freeing and helping every child to do critical thinking. In other instances it is both efficient and democratic to allocate to committees of children or individuals well-defined responsibilities where their particular aptitudes and expertness will contribute significantly. While important matters in decision-making are never put into the hands of the few, certain phases of the work may be better done by the few than the many. Herein committees and individuals gain significance through such participation for the good of the group. Moreover, individual drives and interests are synchronized with the group's purposes and efforts.

4. *Good group work teaches the individual how to participate effectively in cooperation with others.* Since all effective group work grows out of the coördinated efforts of individuals, each child must learn how to become a

good group member. He must have opportunities to learn more about how to discuss, how to release tensions, how to pool his thinking with that of the members of the group. The child can be helped to know when he has responsibilities for assuming leadership and when he properly accepts the leadership of others. He can be taught, through the processes of group work, that co-operation is something which people work to get and to keep through the democratic concern which each individual has for the good of his group.

5. *Good group work depends upon democratic procedures for unlocking resources, resolving conflicts, and reaching decisions.* Democratic procedures are in operation when individual differences are constructively prized and utilized, when agreements are reached by at least majority consent, and when conflicts are resolved by working for better mutual understanding. If group work is to be democratic, outcomes with which children can effectively deal should not be arbitrarily teacher-planned in advance. External authority should not be autocratically employed in making decisions. "Right" and "wrong" in conflict situations cannot be handed down as law or regulation by one dominant person. Rather, every child must be guaranteed the opportunity to make his best contributions. He must have a voice in setting up the rules by which the group will operate. He must have the right, when in a minority, to continue to work constructively for the adoption of the minority's plans. He must be assured an objective, dispassionate hearing in conflict situations. These are the ideals toward which the teacher works with a group. The teacher always remembers, however, that the school should provide opportunity to experiment with democratic procedures of operation rather than demonstrate a finished performance. Through years of guided experience in group work, children grow both in their faith in this way of working together and in their efficiency and effectiveness with group processes.

6. *Good group work develops leaders who create conditions in which every member wants to bring his best thinking and work to the cooperative undertaking.* In democratic groups, leadership is shared in terms of the abilities which are needed in specific situations. No one in the group—not even the teacher—monopolizes the leadership rôle. In fact, much of the teacher's leadership talents are directed to the development of children's potentialities for assuming executive functions. As the teacher works to develop child leaders, he teaches his group members to be wary of any form of dictatorship. In group products that demand the distinctive talents of every member, he demonstrates the worth of every individual to the group rather than reliance upon the favored few. Through group processes, he makes clear that good leaders free and encourage other members to make their best contributions to the group. Good group leaders avoid favoritism, mechanical reliance on orderliness, docility, blind allegiance, and "bossism." Good group leaders place their responsibility for the group welfare above personal prestige, power, or gain. When children are given opportunities for leadership, they gain stature and have a tendency to rise to the demands of such responsibility.

7. *Good group work demands continuous appraisal of group accomplishment.* As group work progresses, evaluation is as necessary as planning and decision-making, for out of critical evaluation further purposing and planning grow. Evaluation not only appraises the present status of group work; it serves also as an impetus to feelings of group accomplishment and group pride. Consideration of "What have we done?" and "How well have we done it?" in relation to "What did we set out to do?" keeps children realistic in terms of

neither assures mastery of such materials nor makes a child effective socially and linguistically in a group situation. Recitation techniques, commonly used in the outmoded school of the past, encouraged children to be compliant, docile, and uncritical. Modern discussion techniques encourage children to be inquiring, alert, and effectual in talking over and in thinking with others about problems and experiences that make a difference to the children themselves. Today many different kinds of discussions are in evidence in the elementary school: inquiry and exploratory discussions; persuasive and controversial discussions; organizational and summary discussions. Many different types of discussions are used: teacher-led discussions, child-led discussions, panel discussions, forums, round-tables, and the like. Through the utilization of diversified discussion experiences, children are helped to think critically together, to adjust to a social environment, to clarify beliefs and values, and to become more effective personalities through increased control over ideas and the verbal expression of these ideas. The modern teacher is frequently heard to say, "We need to discuss that."

Differentiating between Conversation and Discussion. Conversation and discussion are not the same. While discussion will never supplant conversation, it imposes on participants certain types of controls not at all necessary in the best of conversations. In good conversation, small talk is not only permissible but also frequently welcomed. Topics are chosen at random and are talked over with delightful sallies into by-ways and digressions. Without forewarning, the things being talked about may change completely and, by common understanding and consent, topics are realistically or whimsically treated either in broad outline or minute detail. Conversation goes on in an atmosphere of relaxed, good-natured, permissive breeziness. It depends, for its success, on the timely use of charming description, pert small-talk, expert story-telling, neat turns of phrases, and gracious, alert cuing-in to whatever is the talk of the moment.

Discussion, on the other hand, is more serious in intent. Effective discussion demands agreement of the group on the problem or topic. It requires sharp thinking. It calls for self-discipline on the part of each individual to contribute directly to the point being discussed. It avoids wasteful pleasantries and time-consuming meanderings. It follows one main line of thought, evolves a pattern of group thinking, and eventuates in clearly-defined ideas, sufficiently well-organized that every individual is able to ascertain both the directions of thinking followed and the agreements reached.

This does not imply that discussion, in contrast to conversation, is dull, ponderous, and uninteresting. In discussion, there is always the appropriate place for the apt illustration, the story that punctuates a point made, the neat turn of phrase, the quick humor that releases tension, the

picturesque use of words. But always where such artistic communication is in evidence, it is used with the express purpose of helping to move the discussion ahead. It is never extraneous. At the right moment it must effectively contribute to the "center of gravity" of this particular discussion.

Thus one sees clearly that there are appropriate times at school for both conversation and discussion. It is the teacher's job to help children see the appropriateness of their talking in the light of whether or not they are in a situation for conversing or discussing.

Utilizing Steps in Discussion. While no two discussions will ever be exactly alike, there is for all types of discussion situations a general pattern of proceeding that is sound. This includes the following steps:

1. *Discovery of the matter needing discussion.* This may be a topic, a problem, a controversial issue. It may arise from the children's behavior; a spontaneous remark; an accumulation of questions or a single question; a need seen by the teacher alone or by the children and the teacher. In the language of the children this means "Is discussion needed?"

2. *Analysis of the problem.* This comes from group consideration of "Why do we need this discussion?" In the analysis of the problem, the group must consider the source of the need for discussion: lack of information, misunderstandings or misinterpretations, emotionalism, differences of viewpoint. In some situations, this analysis may be further facilitated by an inventory of related sub-problems which, for the children, may be one of the best parts of the process of analysis.

3. *Exploration of points of view.* When the problem or topic has been clearly stated and analyzed, the third step is the exploration of where each member of the group stands on the matter at the present time. By getting out into the open where everyone stands at the beginning, the group sees what the place of "take off" is for each member of the group. It helps everyone see how he must operate in relation to how others will be operating at the beginning of the discussion. For children this step raises the question "What do we all think about this?"

4. *Extension of common understandings.* Beginning with diversified points of view, the discussion should proceed to locate the points of agreement; to lessen, modify, or eliminate points of difference; to build on mutual understandings; to extend areas of common concern. In this step, the group works to pool its best contributions so that every member's vision of the problem is extended and every individual's understanding and insight is deepened through participation in the discussion. Children understand this step to mean "What can we agree upon?"

5. *Formulation of conclusions.* The teacher should see that a discussion never "just stops." In the formulation of conclusions, the whole group should participate. Perhaps the conclusions reached will be a summarization of points of agreement and disagreement, formulation of a plan of action, a proposal of tentative solutions, or a plan for further discussion of the matter. Time is always saved for this important step, for without it the discussion is pointless and does not make the contribution to the group living and learning which it is intended to make. For children, the question is "What have we decided?"

When the teacher consistently uses these steps—avoiding mechanization or stereotyping, of course—children learn how to discuss as well as gain from the content of the discussion. Thus children come to understand that it is democratically efficient to state and analyze the problem, to explore where everyone in the group stands before launching into the various aspects of the discussion, and to formulate definite conclusions. Furthermore, children learn to lead discussions as well as to participate intelligently and effectively.

Beginning the Discussion. In discussion there must, of course, be leadership. There must be a chairman of the discussion group, whether child or teacher, who not only looks after routine matters but who also assumes the unique responsibility in the group of keeping the discussion moving, of holding contributions to the point, of utilizing democratic techniques of operation.

In most of the whole-group discussions that occur in the classroom, the teacher will act as leader. When you act as discussion leader you will want to begin by seeing that:

1. The group is physically comfortable.
("Is the light in your eyes?" "Would you be more comfortable away from that register?")
2. The group is seated, as much as is possible, in a face-to-face situation.
("Can you see everyone who will be talking?" "Could you move in so that we can see you better?")
3. The situation is one of natural, pleasant readiness for attention to the problem or topic to be discussed.
("We won't need those model airplanes during discussion, will we?" "May we have everyone's attention this way?")
4. The matter to be discussed by the group is clearly stated, with time provided to explore possible interpretations and to ask questions about possible differences in meanings.
("What does this discussion topic mean to you?" "What questions do you want to ask before we proceed?")
5. A way to proceed with the discussion is agreed upon by the group.
("What shall be our way of talking this matter over?" "How would you suggest that we go on from here?")
6. Every child is ready to participate.
("What do you have to contribute on this matter?" "Would you like to make a statement at this time?")

Guiding Processes of Discussion. As the discussion proceeds, you will need to keep track both of what is being said and how the group is functioning. The following suggestions will help you in guiding what is being said:

1. Ask questions at the appropriate times.
("What do you mean?" "Could you give an example or illustration?" "How is that different from what Mary said?" "Is that quite the point here?" "Is that fact or opinion?")

2. Keep the discussion to the point.
 ("Let's come back to the point directly." "We seem to be wandering."
 "Perhaps we need a summary of what has been said so far." "That is a
 very different matter, John." "Are we talking about that now, Lucy?")
3. Guide the group to see more in the discussion than they would inde-
 pendently.
 ("We can see more than that, I'm sure." "There are at least two other
 points that might be made." "What does the author mean when he says
 this?" "Let's look at the matter from this point of view, which you
 haven't mentioned so far." "Are we thinking of all the ways we might
 do this?")
4. Help children develop discriminating use of words.
 ("What does 'superior race' mean to you?" "Isn't that an undesirable
 kind of name-calling?" "Can you be more exact as to what 'patriotism'
 means to you?" "What proof do you have that the Japanese people all
 look alike?" "That's a pretty strong statement, as I see it." "You seem
 to me to be prejudiced on that matter." "Do policemen just put people
 in jail?")
5. See that various points of view are given a fair hearing.
 ("Who has a different idea?" "Would you like to say something from
 a different point of view?" "John, would you like to reply to Mary from
 the point of view you expressed?" "It's your turn, Alice, to say what
 you think." "It is all right for David to disagree with us.")
6. Summarize at times when definite progress has been made.
 ("Where do we seem to stand now on this matter?" "Let's see what
 are the good ideas we've had so far?" "Jack, will you state your under-
 standing of this matter before we go on?")
7. Interpret clearly with the group the individual's contribution.
 ("Let's be sure we see what Jean means before we go on." "If we
 accept what Tony says, it may change our conclusions." "Perhaps if
 Jack gave some examples, we'd get his point better." "Maybe we had
 better hear that idea again, Sophia." "Have you some question you would
 like to ask Francine at this time?")
8. Point out neglected angles that have a bearing on the discussion.
 ("We seem to have overlooked this matter." "Maybe we should think
 about this, too, in our discussion." "Yesterday Frank suggested some-
 thing that we haven't considered yet." "Have we considered what our
 parents might think about this?")
9. Clear up misconceptions, contrary-to-fact statements, invalid interpre-
 tations of data.
 ("Did you all get the same meaning from the quotation that Paul just
 told us about?" "The facts do not bear you out on that point, Jo." "What
 proof can you offer when you make that general statement?" "We'll
 have to stop and look at that suggestion more carefully." "Betty, are
 you sure it happened just that way?")
10. Work for the constructive expression of ideas.
 ("Could we re-state that idea in a more helpful way?" "Does your
 suggestion give us clues as to what to do as well as what not to do?"
 "How might that be said so that we'd see better what is possible rather
 than just what is impossible?" "What should we do on the way to the
 farm?")

Since good discussion is a coöperative questing for ideas, the group leader must be concerned also with how discussion techniques are being used. While there can be no clear line of demarcation between what is said and how it is said, here are a number of things which the teacher can do to help the group with the processes of discussion:

1. Encourage informality, ease, good humor.
2. Seek participation from every member of the group.
3. Discourage arguments.
4. Keep your opinions to a helpful minimum.
5. Interrupt "speech making" tactfully.
6. Use commendation genuinely.
7. Respect honest differences.
8. Relate the individual's contribution to the group thinking.
9. Invite pertinent original questions.
10. Encourage courtesy and receptivity to new ideas.
11. Promote independent thinking.
12. Discourage "right or wrong" and "either-or" thinking.
13. Insist upon fairness to various sides of an issue or problem.
14. Be on the lookout for differing uses and interpretations of the same words.
15. Maintain awareness of the presence of every child.
16. Encourage the speaker to talk to the group rather than just to the leader.
17. Be sensitive to and release verbally unexpressed rise of tension.
18. Avoid putting pressure on children to get predetermined results.
19. Limit the length of discussions realistically in terms of the developmental level of the children.
20. Allow, even encourage, momentary silences when thinking is taking place.
21. Trust group judgments.

Helping Children Lead Discussion. Usually in the early-elementary grades the teacher will act as discussion leader. In teaching children in the later-elementary grades to be effective discussion leaders, remember that they too must eventually learn to do the same things that the adult leader does. However, with each child, the teacher must help him improve in these abilities—emphasizing a few at a time. In developing discussion leaders, it is sometimes wise to work out with the children suggested guides for leading discussion. Here is an example of some guides worked out by one fifth-grade group:

A Good Discussion Leader

1. Keeps the group on the subject.
2. Gives everyone a fair chance to talk.
3. Stops arguments nicely.
4. Keeps the group in order.
5. Helps the group think together.
6. Is pleasant and fun to work with during discussion periods.

In addition to helping children work out such guides, you can do the following:

1. Be sure the topic or problem is one that the child leader can appropriately handle.
2. Be sure that the discussion is not too long for the developmental level of the group—probably not over about twenty minutes.
3. Be sure the group members realize their responsibility to the group leader in making the discussion successful.
4. Be sure the setting and the situation are well in hand before turning the matter over to a child leader.
5. Be sure that, as a member of the group, you do not dominate the child leader, but do sensitively "cue in" to help him at points where he really needs the assistance of more mature judgment.

Much of the success of discussion experiences is dependent on the ways that the leader works with the group. To lead discussion democratically, with finesse, is an art well worth your best effort as you learn to teach.

Being a Member of a Discussion Group. As you guide discussion experiences, you have many opportunities to teach children how to participate effectively as members of a discussion group. This is as important as teaching children to be discussion leaders—if not more so.

Perhaps the first thing to help children understand is what discussion is and is not. You can help children develop the concept that discussion is a cooperative effort to arrive at group decisions or conclusions about topics, problems, or issues. You can teach them that discussion is not aimless talk, debate or argument, parroted memorization of facts or opinions, or "pooled ignorance." There is good discussion only when every member comes to the group prepared to contribute his very best thinking.

As children develop discussion abilities, the teacher must help them come to discussion periods with understandings of themselves and their peers as social personalities. You will want to try to help the children increasingly realize that when they come to a discussion they:

1. Seriously intend to be participators.
2. Satisfactorily are prepared to contribute to the discussion.
3. Democratically enter the discussion to learn from others as well as contribute to the learning of their peers.
4. Open-mindedly expect differences of beliefs, opinions, values.
5. Genuinely expect to suspend judgment until the evidence clearly indicates best solutions or conclusions.

During the discussion each member of the group should be taught to be the kind of participator who:

1. States his ideas independently with the understanding that everyone's ideas count.
2. Listens thoughtfully to the contributions of others.

3. Times his contributions so that they help to push the discussion ahead.
4. Asks pertinent questions.
5. Answers questions courteously.
6. Disagrees in a friendly fashion.
7. Avoids making speeches.
8. Addresses his comments to the whole group rather than just to the leader.
9. Speaks pointedly and clearly so that his contribution is meaningful and attractive to the listeners.
10. Uses such common courtesies as "Thank you," "Pardon me," "Please say that again," and the like.
11. Avoids insensitive or derogatory references to the race, religion, status of other group members.
12. Avoids interposing distractions such as playing with objects, talking unnecessarily to neighbors, or in other ways attracting attention to himself.
13. Gives in graciously and honestly in the light of superior evidence.
14. Avoids unnecessary repetition of points already well made.
15. Asks for clarifications of meaning.
16. Points out calmly but honestly inadequacies of data, omissions in evidence, unwarranted conclusions, rash solutions, gross oversimplifications, vague generalizations.
17. Avoids negative criticisms about the quality of the discussion.
18. Helps others make their points well by facial expression, appropriate comment, apt illustration, and the like.

Group participation in discussion is complicated. You cannot expect the members of the group to learn to do all these things simultaneously. Rather, as you evaluate where your group is in its participation, you will need to point out and talk over with the children next steps for improving their abilities in using discussion techniques. You can give them the satisfaction of knowing when and how they are doing better. You can build constructively on improvements. In these ways children are encouraged to seek higher levels of participation in discussion individually and as a group. They learn not only to reach desired ends but also to share in the promotion of democratic processes in thinking together.

SHARING EXPERIENCES

Sharing is a different type of group work. Sharing differs from discussion chiefly in that it is more like informal oral reporting. Whereas discussion is primarily pooled thinking, sharing is planned and presented to the group by the individual. Whereas discussion avoids speech-making, sharing is the beginning of informal speech-making since it is always in some way reportorial in purpose.

Neither should sharing be confused with planning, which is a specialized form of discussion. When a group plans, it uses the best discussion techniques of which it is capable. When a group shares, the children take turns presenting to the group objects, readings, original work, experiences, and

ideas. These may or may not be related to what other children in the group will be presenting during the same period. During the sharing period the child assumes the two distinct and discrete rôles of participator and listener, whereas during discussion and planning periods he assumes the two rôles simultaneously.

The Teacher's Rôle in Sharing Periods. The modern teacher uses sharing periods for their values both to the individual and to the group. For the individual, sharing is an opportunity to coördinate his special abilities and interests with those of the group; to develop his ability to get across to an audience; to be a good listener; to learn to contribute responsibly to his peers. For the peer group, sharing is an opportunity to maximize the different abilities and interests of all its members; to coördinate group and individual purposes; to create good audience situations; to learn to take turns democratically; to foster group pride in each individual's developments.

Sharing periods can be richly informative times for the teacher as well as for the children. As children share, you will discover many things about them: their beliefs, attitudes, values; their interests; their home environments; their friendships; their hobbies; their speech habits; their problems, wishes, aspirations. As a result of sharing experiences, also, you will be able to see how children are developing in getting up before the group freely; in organizing what they have to say; in improving their skills of oral expression; in demonstrating their ability to hold an audience; in developing their own ideas; in being selective in what is suitable for sharing.

You no doubt have had the thrilling experience of sitting down with children who, by their facial expressions and eagerness of attitude, clearly indicate that they are glad that it is time to share. As you know, this does not just happen. It means that the teacher believes sufficiently in the process of sharing to provide regularly assigned time and to plan for it. Frequently this time is at the very beginning of the school day, preceding planning. Teachers who place it near the beginning of the day do so because, when children bring things from outside the school, they are very anxious to share as soon as possible. This is particularly true of children in the early-elementary grades.

There are additional times in the school day when sharing periods may be effectively utilized for more specific purposes. One such time is at appropriate places in the unit of work. For example, during the exploratory period in which a unit of work on their home state was being considered, one fourth-grade group of children took some time to share pictures, curios, products, and clippings that had been individually collected. Some children showed postcards: of the state capitol, of street scenes from various cities, of churches, hospitals, and scenic beauties. Other children had souvenirs, examples of commercial products, or clippings from news-

papers dealing with important information concerning current state affairs. Sometimes sharing periods are also used for current events, prose and poetry selections, creative art products, or science apparatus and specimens.

During the sharing period the teacher stays somewhat in the background, avoiding a dominating rôle. He must, however, in as unobtrusive a manner as possible, guide the sharing:

1. By developing a mood of constructive receptivity which constitutes readiness for sharing.
2. By starting the sharing only when this readiness has been achieved.
3. By choosing the persons who will be next in turn.
4. By encouraging the audience to help the speaker do his best.
5. By encouraging the speaker to share with all the group, not just with the teacher.
6. By helping the group to see the significance of each thing shared.
7. By guiding the questions which group members choose to ask of the speaker.
8. By sometimes sharing directly himself.
9. By gauging the length of the period to the interest span of the group.
10. By bringing the period to an interesting and satisfying conclusion.

Throughout the sharing period, the teacher has to be an attentive observer and listener. Since sharing periods grow as they go, the teacher's planning for such times can only be done in broad outline. Through intelligent watching, listening, and reacting sensitively to what is going on at the moment, the teacher creatively cues in to the situation. His best pre-planning for the next sharing period grows out of his evaluation of the last one. From such evaluations he may improve the sharing periods with reference to physical conditions, duration, choice of materials, listening habits, audience disturbances, speaking abilities, attention span, beginnings, endings, placements within the school day. At appropriate times, too, evaluations of sharing should be carried on with the children. In such evaluations, children should be encouraged to cite improvements, state further needs, plan next steps, and make concrete proposals for putting such plans into action. This also guides the teacher in planning further for sharing periods.

Here are a few cautions which should be observed:

1. Be sure the group is comfortably settled, face to face, before the first child is asked to share.
2. Do not interrupt the speaker to interpose your ideas or correct his English usage.
3. Help the speaker only when he cannot go on successfully without such assistance.
4. Interrupt the speaker quietly and courteously if the audience is unco-operative.

5. See that the various children are given equal opportunities to share.
6. Be cautious in supplying crutches to the speaker, such as putting your arm around him, placing your hand on his back, interjecting words, and the like.
7. Separate children who may cause disturbances as neighbors before the period starts rather than during the period.
8. Notice the first signs of fatigue so that the period does not degenerate into inattention by being too long.
9. Get some estimate of the number of things to be shared, so that time can be divided somewhat equitably among the different children.
10. Avoid passing objects among the group while a child is talking.
11. Do not show by your facial expression, gesture, or comment that you think the child's contribution unworthy.

For children and teacher alike, sharing experiences can be delightfully worthwhile if the atmosphere created is one of wholesome freedom, if standards for sharing are not made too high, and if both the group as a whole and the individuals in the group are demonstrating improvements in their choices of things to share, in their coöperation, and in their effectiveness in oral expression.

Materials for Sharing Periods. In sharing periods at the kindergarten level, children frequently begin by exhibiting their toys, showing a leaf or stone found on the way to school, telling about the new article of clothing they are wearing, or recounting a family experience. It is from such simple beginnings that the selection of what is appropriate for sharing emerges. In helping children develop skillful selectivity, the teacher plays an important part. When children bring in such materials as a piece of string, a broken beverage bottle, or a fragment of tin-foil, the teacher treats this as a symptom. Perhaps the child's values differ from those of the adult. Perhaps the child is seeking attention at any price. Perhaps the child's environment seems so poverty-stricken that he has to concoct something to share. Perhaps he is immature in terms of making wise choices. When the teacher asks himself "Why?" in these cases, rather than condemns the individual, he will discover ways to help the child improve his choices of sharing materials.

To help the child learn to select sharing materials, you can raise such questions as these with the children in reference to types of contributions:

1. Is this something that to you is very interesting to talk about?
2. Will it be worthwhile to the group?
3. Can you do a good job of explaining your contribution?
4. Will it make the audience want to listen and ask questions?
5. Will you be satisfied that you have made a good contribution to the group?

It is particularly important that the child be protected from critical analysis of his contribution at the time when he is sharing. The time to

use such questions would be in pre-planning or in evaluations following sharing.

Children by themselves frequently do not recognize the broad categories from which selections for sharing may be made. Sometimes the individual child gets the notion that he has nothing of importance to share, when in reality there is a vast amount of material at his finger tips if he but recognizes it. To help children see potentialities, you need to inventory sharing materials with them in terms of their developmental level. Among the commonly used are concrete materials, readings, creative work, and experiences or ideas.

The range of concrete materials which children may share is practically endless. They may be toys, books, mementos, or other prized personal possessions. They may be postcards, magazine pictures, charts, or other pictorial representations. They may be model airplanes, miniature furniture, bird's nests. They may be wooden shoes, Mexican tinware, Indian baskets, or other materials borrowed from adults to show to the group. The social studies, science, the graphic arts, mathematics, music—in fact, all areas of the modern curriculum—suggest to children sources of concrete materials rich in potentialities for significant contributions during the sharing period.

When concrete materials are shared, the child should be taught to exhibit them so that all the group can see distinctly and so that the showing does not interfere with but adds to the verbal sharing. He must learn to keep the object inconspicuous until his turn for sharing comes. He must also learn to put the object out of the way when his turn is over, so that it does not distract attention from the contributions of others.

In sharing readings, a child may choose a selection which he has enjoyed and thinks the group will also enjoy and appreciate. It may be a poem, a short prose selection, a joke, an explanation that accompanies a picture, a news item, or an anecdote. When a reading is shared, the child should be taught to prepare his material before attempting to read orally to the group. He should try to avoid asking for assistance on words during the reading. When his turn comes to share, he should have the material ready: the place in the book marked; the printed matter immediately at hand.

Creative work may include: individual products in the graphic arts; creative writing in prose and poetry; home-made science equipment and apparatus; or mathematical experimentations such as counting devices, graphs, and three-dimensional figures. When creative work is shared, the child should be encouraged to tell explicitly what he has intended to do or the meaning he has intended to convey. Again, he must learn to exhibit his original work well so that the group can appreciatively view it.

In the sharing of experiences or ideas, children also have a wide variety of choices. They may tell personal experiences, family stories, interesting

information, humorous anecdotes, and recountings of things seen, heard, or read. When children use such materials for sharing, you can teach them to give their contributions directly, to avoid meandering, unnecessary details, and back-tracking. They should learn to follow some sequence of events interestingly. They should be taught to build up to a high point of interest, to employ colorful language, and to avoid anti-climactic effects at the end of their contributions.

As children are given opportunities to participate regularly in sharing periods, they increase in their abilities to select materials more wisely, to prepare for an effective presentation of their contributions, to learn where and how to end their part appropriately, and to give thoughtful attention to the sharing of others.

How Small Groups Share. Although sharing is usually on an individual basis, occasionally children may want to share as small groups. A small group may share a story that they have read with the whole room; they may present an original skit or dramatized version of a story; they may present interesting information which they have gathered on a topic or hobby; or they may voluntarily demonstrate something upon which they have worked collectively, such as a choral reading, a group of folk songs, homemade musical instruments, or some science experiments with water. In these cases the children must know about this responsibility far enough in advance that they can work out their general organization, allocate specific jobs, and coordinate their methods of presentation.

Before small groups share, the teacher will need to work with them enough to assure a satisfactory presentation. While the group leadership itself should remain with the children, you can help in their preparation and presentation by:

1. Planning with them about content, time, and materials.
2. Considering with them their proposed general organization.
3. Analyzing with them their proposals for the division of labor.
4. Offering various kinds of suggested improvements for their final approval or disapproval.
5. Encouraging originality of presentation.
6. Providing time when the group can work together independently.
7. Participating directly in the presentation when your help is necessary.

Following the sharing, you may want to appraise the outcome with the small group itself as well as with the room as a whole. During the evaluation, the children should be free to express their own feelings of the success of their undertaking. They should be helped to see wherein they did well and wherein, if they were doing it over, they would make modifications. They should come away from the experience with the feeling that they have done something of significance for the group, that they can point with satisfaction to what the various members have con-

tributed, and that they have learned more about group processes of operation from the experience.

Sharing with Other Classroom Groups. Sometimes one room shares with another room in the school. In these situations the children may do something helpful for another room. For instance, an older group may help a younger group locate books and pictures that will be useful to the younger children in enterprises that they are carrying on. Younger children might collect and share with an older group concrete materials that they know will be helpful to them in a field of particular interest.

In room-to-room sharing, one group may entertain another group with informal dramatizations, original stories and poems, music, and the like. Or they may share together something that is mutually beneficial, especially when there are overlapping purposes. In one school a unit of work on modern transportation in the third grade was in progress at the same time that a unit on pioneer life was being carried on in the fourth grade. At those points where their concerns had common elements, the two room groups spent several profitable sharing periods together. Occasionally there is an opportunity for a group in one school to share with another group in a different building. In one situation two sixth grades, both of whom had selected units of work on Canada, got together and shared their activities with each other, after which they saw a new movie on Canada and did some French Canadian folk dances together to round out the experience.

In room-to-room sharing experiences, the general guides previously mentioned remain much the same, since all good sharing demands pre-planning, definite time provisions, a satisfactory audience situation, interesting, voluntary contributions from individuals, and honest appraisal of both the participators and the audience. By giving children a variety of types of sharing experiences, they learn to be effective speakers and sensitive listeners. They learn that sharing is a mutually beneficial and satisfying experience in democratic living and learning at school.

RESEARCH EXPERIENCES

In the outmoded school, study centered largely in the accomplishment of assigned tasks on assigned topics in prescribed textbooks. When the teacher thought sufficient time had been spent on the material, he questioned the children. This procedure was then repeated until the books in the various subjects were completed.

The modern school conceives study differently. Good study involves not only the mastery of materials but also the use of effective study techniques and the development of methods of attacking problems. The modern school teaches where to locate appropriate materials and how

to use such types of study helps as encyclopedias, almanacs, and dictionaries. It encourages children to organize ideas derived from a variety of sources. It aims to eventuate in *thinking rather than memorization*; in the successful use of many different materials rather than the mere coverage of a single text; in the skills of locating, selecting, and organizing materials rather than in the acceptance of a single source of authority. Study periods in the modern school are always quiet but purposefully active periods. Individuals, small groups, and in some cases the entire class pursue the answers to questions or problems which they have helped to formulate and for which they have assumed the responsibility of giving their findings to the group. On the child's level of development such study is research, for research is the systematic seeking for the answers to questions which are considered important by the individuals engaging in the quest.

Assuming Responsibilities for Research. Before children can select responsibilities for specific research activities, the group must have agreed upon the questions, topics, or problem areas to be explored. With children in the early-elementary grades, rather specific questions are to be expected, such as the following:

Our Community Helpers

I. The Mailman

1. Where does the mailman get the mail?
2. How does the mailman know his route?
3. How are packages delivered?
4. How does the mailman sort the mail?

As the children grow older, they are able to work out with the teacher larger topics or problems on which they want research done by the members of the group. In some cases these are worked out as questions; in others they are stated as topic headings. One sixth-grade group, after many questions had been asked and many topics suggested, finally re-organized their guides to research thus:

Our Canadian Neighbors

I. Canada Today

- A. Its size, surface
- B. Its chief natural resources
- C. Its industries
- D. Its government
- E. Its place in the British Empire

II. Canada's History

- A. Its early settlement
- B. Its early leaders
- C. Its development as a country

III. What Canada Contributes to the World

- A. Its products
- B. Its part in world events

IV. How Canada Works with the United States

- A. What the United States imports from Canada
- B. What Canada imports from the United States
- C. Agreements between the two countries

In the organization for research the teacher must take an active part: encouraging the children to tell what they want to know; guiding and participating in the selection and organization of ideas; helping them locate source materials; and getting committee groups arranged to do the research.

Once the problems or topics have been agreed upon, the next major job is to decide what aspects of the research are to be done by committees, by individuals, and by the whole group. In making committee arrangements, the teacher, with the more mature judgment, assumes the rôle of leadership. He guides the children to agreements on the number of committees needed and the approximate size of each, the method of selecting committee members, and the way in which the committees will organize themselves for doing their work. Size of committees may vary, depending upon the scope of the research topic, but probably no committee should be smaller than three or four members or larger than seven or eight.

There are several possible methods of selecting committee members. The least desirable method is assignment by the teacher. More desirable methods include the following:

1. Children write down their first and second choices, from which a small group of children and the teacher work out committee assignments.
2. Children orally express their choices, which are written on the blackboard. As one committee is closed, children choose from the remaining topics.
3. Children tell the teacher their choices or write their names after a posted list of questions or topics for research.

Once the members are selected, time for committee meetings must be arranged. At the first meeting, the group may wish to appoint a chairman whose responsibility it becomes to coordinate the efforts of the members and keep the teacher posted on problems that the group is facing in finding materials, organizing their materials, or working together cooperatively. Occasionally, to give certain children needed experience, the teacher may appoint or suggest a chairman. But, for the most part, the committee members will select their chairman independently. Usually the room as a whole sets up criteria for selecting chairmen. Here are the criteria established by one fifth grade:

Duties of a Committee Chairman

1. The chairman must be able to get along well with other people.
2. The chairman must know how to keep the committee members working.
3. The chairman must be willing to work hard for the good of his group.
4. The chairman must remember to keep the teacher posted on important points.
5. The chairman must cooperate with the group, without trying to be the boss.

Other important first steps in committee group work include understanding their particular job; locating sources of research materials; dividing up the work to be done; making plans for keeping fellow members informed of progress made; and agreeing upon ways to share available materials among all the members.

During these organizational meetings of the committee groups, you will want to be actively alert to how each group is getting started. Even while working with one particular group which momentarily needs your immediate attention, you will want to keep at least one eye on what other groups are doing. Your movement from group to group—with a question here, a suggestion there, a word of encouragement in the third place—is assurance to the children that you are interested in seeing that every committee gets off to a good start.

Collecting Materials for Research. If committees are to achieve their best results, there must be adequate materials available. Some of these materials will, of course, be found in sets of reference books. Others will be found in single copies of books, sometimes by book title, sometimes by tables of contents or indexes. Still others may be found in pamphlets, government bulletins, magazine articles, newspaper clippings, or, if carefully selected, advertising brochures. Pictures, charts, and graphs are frequently desirable as well as other types of visual aids and concrete materials.

It is probably best to assemble all the reading research materials in one conveniently located place, so that they will be readily available for use. A table or specially designated book shelves may serve this purpose well. While the teacher will assume considerable responsibility for locating and collecting research materials, children can frequently be very helpful. They can be encouraged to get materials from their homes or the public libraries. Sometimes they are able to write to companies for free materials that may be useful. One test of good research work is the enthusiasm of the children for searching out source materials that will be helpful not only to their own committee but also to other committee groups. Thus the collections of materials may increase as the research progresses.

In your search you will try to locate sources of information that are suitable to the differing abilities of the children in your room. Plenty

of easy reading materials for all of the children should be available. Some books and magazines that are largely pictorial will be valuable. Materials written from different points of view—perhaps even conflicting points of view—will be useful to encourage children's critical thinking.

In some classrooms a special library committee assumes the responsibility of keeping the research materials in order, of organizing them by appropriate topics, of checking them in and out. In any case, some orderliness and provision for continuous sharing of materials are necessary if every committee is to make the most of its time.

Working with Research Materials. When the committee groups are organized and oriented to their work, the research is well under way. The next step is the individual and group study which is necessary for successful committee contributions. Children will need your direct help in this aspect of research experiences.

In the first place, they will need assistance in learning how to use reference books efficiently and effectively. This includes the use of tables of contents, indexes, and side headings in individual books as well as ways to locate materials economically in reference books and encyclopedias. To take time to teach children to use such aids is important. If the children have already had some experience in locating materials in books, your alert observation may uncover time-wasting practices or evidences of misconceptions that you will need to correct with the group as a whole. Or you may discover small groups or individuals who need help in improving their ability to locate specific information.

In the second place, as the children progress in their research, you may also need to help individuals or groups with their reading skills. Some of the children may need assistance with central thought or total meaning. Others may be having difficulties with the organization of ideas; still others with word, sentence, or paragraph meanings. While children are working on research, the teacher has a fine opportunity to guide them in their functional improvement of the skills of reading. In your movement from individual to individual or committee to committee, you will want to diagnose children's needs in reading skills and then provide periods other than research time in which purposeful practice is given on the skills needed in doing effective informational reading. Occasionally a committee or individuals locate valuable material which they cannot independently read with meaning. In these cases it is wise for the teacher to sit down with the children concerned, read to them, and discuss the ideas gained when the material has been read to them.

In the third place, children will need your guidance in organizing the ideas obtained from their research. Note-taking and outlining are skills with which the children will need considerable help throughout the later-elementary grades. All too frequently children are able merely to copy

from some books verbatim and sometimes think that this completes their responsibility. To teach children to read, assimilate ideas, and then put them in their own words takes patience and continued experience. There is no one way to help children learn to take notes or outline effectively. At times you will need to give direct instruction to the whole group in organizing ideas from printed materials. In these instances, the language-arts books available in your school will be useful as references. As a caution, remember the maturity of the children, and keep the note-taking and outlining simple enough that they can succeed satisfactorily with these skills of data collection.

In the fourth place, committees need assistance in pooling their ideas and organizing their information for presentation. As research progresses, you will need to provide time for committees to work together, thinking about their findings, critically examining their conclusions, collecting more evidence, reorganizing their ideas, planning ways to present their materials, and practicing their presentation so that they will be effective in their reporting to the room group.

Throughout the research the teacher must be sure to see that there is a neat balance of time provided for individual and committee work. At times, both types may be going on simultaneously in the room, with some committees meeting and others working individually. This means that, at the beginning of the research time, you will need to know what each committee plans to do during this particular period so that you can give your best help accordingly.

While work on research is in progress, the teacher prepares himself the best that he can to be at one and the same time a stimulator, searcher for materials, helper, informer, questioner, and general manager. It is a very satisfying experience to help children help themselves as they purposefully and cooperatively seek out important knowledge to contribute to their peers.

Reporting Research. There is no uniform pattern to be followed in reporting research. In some instances, committees make their reports as soon as they are ready. In other instances, the reports are saved until all the committees are ready and then time is set aside for several days in which the reports are given in sequence. In still other instances, each committee gives several progress reports, followed by a summary report at the conclusion of the study. Whichever method of reporting is utilized is dependent upon the best judgment of the teacher and the children of what would seem to be most beneficial in the particular circumstance.

While committees are planning, you will need to think through with them some ways in which their reports might be presented:

1. As a series of short individual reports
2. In a question-and-answer sequence

3. As an informal panel or round-table discussion
4. As an illustrated discussion, utilizing charts, graphs, sketches, pictures, slides, models, or other visual aids
5. As a demonstration or a series of demonstrations
6. As a dramatization.

During the actual reporting, the teacher's rôle is one of listening sympathetically but critically to the facts, figures, and ideas expressed. He is particularly alert to catch misconceptions, incongruities, misstatements of facts, dangerous generalizations. He notes also questions which he should ask following the report. During the reporting, as in sharing, the teacher remains inconspicuous. He knows that he can ask his questions and make his suggestions after the report better than interrupting and intruding in the report as it is in progress. He knows also that he will have better times than these to correct children's English usage. He is alert to how the audience is helping the reporters. In extreme cases of misbehavior, for the good of the committee, he will firmly interrupt enough to assure a better hearing for the children's efforts. On the whole, however, if the previous phases of the research experience have been carefully planned and carried out, the reporting itself goes very well, carried chiefly by the committee's enthusiastic desire to share their findings with their peers.

Following each report, time should be provided for whole-group discussion. This is the time for other children to ask questions, to add their contributions, to query the committee about the adequacy of their data or the authority of their sources. This is the time for the teacher to raise his questions, to clear up misconceptions, to encourage the committee to clarify their thinking on less well developed phases of their report. This is the time for the group to request the committee to do further research if new questions arise or if some phases of the report seem inadequately handled. This is the time to give the committee honest praise for whatever they have done well.

If one committee report is to be followed immediately by a second report, the teacher must see that an adequate transition is made. Perhaps, too, a moment of relaxation will assure the second committee a good audience. In scheduling the committee reports, consideration of the attention span of the group should be realistically taken into account. It is generally better to spread reports over several successive days to assure each committee a relaxed, sympathetic audience than to attempt to hurry or crowd them, and thus destroy what, to the children, is the climax of their research efforts.

Evaluating Research Experiences. In appraising the total research experience, you will, generally, follow the acceptable practice of honestly but sympathetically looking at accomplishments. Four important, inter-related considerations in the process of the evaluation will be: the extent

to which purposes were achieved; the strengths of the various committee reports; the ways in which specific research abilities are improving; and the next improvements to be undertaken.

You may also find it desirable to discuss and list the learnings of the group in research methods. This is the way one group of sixth-grade children responded concerning their use of methods of research, in experience-chart form:

Our Research Methods

1. We are learning to sort out important information from unimportant information.
2. We are learning to read from more than one source.
3. We are learning to put information into our own words.
4. We are learning to organize our materials under big topics better.
5. We are learning to read charts, graphs, and maps to help us get information.
6. We are learning not to be satisfied with just the first materials we locate.
7. We are learning to read questioningly.

As children have increasing numbers of experiences with research study, they become more adept in evaluating their plans, their location of materials, their procedures in committee organization, and their research methods. They become more critical students of problems and topics and more skillful searchers after information, facts, and ideas that are significant to them.

Research by the Whole Group. All that has been said about research by committee groups has implications for situations in which all the children in the room work as a whole group. Sometimes the research topic or problem is too immediate in importance or too narrow in scope to warrant committee organization. Sometimes, even in research experiences organized around committees, it is necessary for the teacher to give the group as a whole some guided work with new research methods or with those techniques with which different committees are having difficulty. Sometimes there may be information so important to all the committees that it is more economical of time and energy to spend a period or two as one big group with such materials. In these cases, the group as a whole directly attacks the problem or question, with individuals seeking information in various similar sources or with the group as a whole reading and discussing the same material.

At times, if some reading matter is useful information but too difficult for most of the children to read, the teacher will want to read it to them, pausing for discussion as he progresses from one main idea to the next. In these situations, the teacher not only offers the group especially important information but also gives the children readiness experiences for mastering such materials and adds to their drives for improving their skills in reading.

This is, moreover, a way to provide for the group valuable experiences in learning to listen critically to informational matter.

In whole-group research experiences, the teacher has an excellent opportunity to initiate children into research methods and to give them an over-view of research techniques. Since children cannot be expected to master independently the intricacies of research, there is frequent need for the teacher to work directly with the class as a whole in their research experiences: in the social studies, mathematics, science, the language arts—in fact, in practically all of the areas of curriculum experience. When the teacher becomes “research-minded,” he sees many opportunities to expand children’s learnings in the processes of research. Creative teachers frequently are heard to say:

“Let’s look that word up in several different dictionaries.”

“We have six different language books in our room library. Let’s divide up, and for tomorrow see what different authorities say about the qualities of a good thank-you note.”

“We seem to need to know the answer to an important question ‘Why do our plants need more light?’ before going ahead with our science experiments. Who will volunteer to look this up in the encyclopedia? In our science books? Who will see the science teacher at the high school? Could some of you go to see Mr. Johnson, the florist, after school today?”

“I’d like to read from this book about mathematics which Jean’s father sent us. Listen to see how many uses of decimals in our everyday lives you can find in these two pages.”

“Jack got this list of duties of a bus driver from his uncle who drives one of our city buses. He’ll read the list for us and then answer our questions or get the answers from his uncle.”

You can see that some whole-group research will be planned well in advance and some will grow out of unanticipated questions or problems. In both cases, the alert teacher starts with the children’s purposes and proceeds with them to explore appropriate sources of information, to utilize sound research techniques, to pool information, to achieve satisfactory reports, and to appraise, however briefly, the results.

Research Work in the Early-elementary Grades. Research work really begins in the kindergarten. When five-year-olds ask questions the answers to which involve group exploration and investigation at their level of development, research has begun. From these beginnings the teacher in the early-elementary grades proceeds to develop suitable research procedures and techniques. In spirit the concept of research is the same as that in the later-elementary grades. The chief difference lies in the organizational practices which the teacher utilizes with the younger children:

1. Whereas the older children may work in committees, in the early-elementary grades the children will work largely as one group—as a committee of the whole.

2. Whereas the older children do considerable reading from a variety of sources, in the early-elementary grades the children will do relatively little independent reading of such materials. In addition, the teacher may read to them from several different books; they may use materials largely pictorial in nature; they may use persons—their parents, other relatives, neighbors—as sources of information; or they may use direct observation in their environment.
3. Whereas with older children committees will take on responsibilities for larger topics or questions, children in the early-elementary grades will search out pertinent information as individuals or as several individuals, seeking answers to quite specific questions.
4. Whereas older children will frequently assume responsibilities as committees for organizing ideas, taking notes, and making outlines, in the early-elementary grades the teacher will act as guide to discussion and as secretary for most of the written work, taking notes and organizing ideas from the children's dictation.
5. Whereas in the later-elementary grades ways of reporting are worked out by committee groups, in the early-elementary grades the reporting is more immediate, spontaneous, individual, and less formally organized.
6. Whereas older children's evaluations may be quite comprehensive, in the early-elementary grades the answers to simply stated, direct questions serve as the evaluation procedures employed: Did we answer our questions? How did Bobby, Billy, and Barbara help us answer our questions? Are there other things we want to find out about next? How did our walking trip help us answer our questions?
7. Whereas older children can project their research weeks ahead, the maturity of younger children demands that they must seek answers to questions that can be obtained and reported in a brief period of time—a matter of a day or two.

As the teacher guides research in the early-elementary grades, he is always alert to the opportunities for giving children "research readiness" experiences. By working with the committee of the whole, he is helping children get ready for committee work later on. By giving children experiences in tracking down information by direct observation or from oral communication with adults, the teacher is helping children into research reading. This does not imply that research experiences in the early-elementary grades are not significant in and of themselves. It does mean, however, that the teacher recognizes the developmental limitations of younger children in realistically determining the scope of the problems or questions, the ways to proceed in gathering information, the reporting of findings, and the appraisal of the outcomes. The teacher does recognize that he takes much more direct responsibility in matters of organizing ideas and following through on plans than is necessary with older children. In this way he conceives his job as directing research for the immediate values to the group that accrue therefrom, as promoting readiness for further research work, and as developing added insight into group processes. Through this teacher guidance children move progressively

toward higher levels of research procedures and techniques, toward more mature thinking, and toward fuller realization of the potentialities of group processes as a means of studying important problems, topics, or questions. In this way study habits and skills, at every grade level, are functionally developed, purposefully improved, and realistically utilized.

INDEPENDENT WORK EXPERIENCES AT SCHOOL

Whenever the teacher needs to work with a small group in the classroom, there is always the accompanying problem of what the rest of the children will do. To solve this problem, the "1900 model" school hit upon the idea of "busy work." Busy work was, as the name implies, simple little tasks thought up by the ingenious teacher to keep the children working quietly in their seats while he was teaching other children. Sometimes this was copy work, in which the children wrote over and over again the same exercise materials. Sometimes it was little "letter cards," from which the children made words from small pasteboard letters—words which the teacher had written on the chalkboard. Sometimes it was making stylized little designs with crayons, exact duplicates of an example which the teacher supplied.

When some alert teachers began to question the educative values of busy work, the idea of seatwork evolved. Seatwork differed from busy work in only one important respect. It aimed to relate more directly to the work that was going on at the time in the room. If children had read a story about a visit to the farm, the teacher put on the chalkboard some questions to answer, or directions for making a picture. If the children had been doing multiplication problems in arithmetic, the teacher put twenty more similar problems on the chalkboard to be done as seatwork. Most frequently this seatwork was directed toward the mastery of the skills and materials being commonly taught. It was an additional way to provide for drill and memorization and at the same time keep the children busily occupied at their seats. From this idea came the early workbooks that were introduced into the elementary school.

The modern school repudiates the idea of busy work, recognizes the short-comings of seatwork, and provides, instead, independent work experiences for children. The concept of independent work experiences assumes that there are times when children need to work in groups and times when they need to work alone. It assumes that important phases of the development of personal study habits and skills is an individual matter, individually learned, even when the results of such study make a contribution to the group work. It assumes that independent work experiences test the present status of children's abilities to attack jobs efficiently, to manage time effectively, to work without direct assistance, to make de-

cisions intelligently, to consider the rights of others, and to achieve worthy products independently.

Kinds of Independent Work Periods. In the modern elementary school there are several important kinds of independent work periods utilized to help children learn to do significant work without immediate adult direction. Independent work commonly goes on in the following kinds of situations:

1. When the teacher is working with one small group in direct learning situations, and the rest of the children are directing their own work on agreed-upon jobs
2. During committee group work, when some committees are meeting and others are working as individuals
3. At times when all the children are working individually, and the teacher moves from child to child, helping each with his individual needs
4. During free-choice periods, in which each child selects his own activities and carries them through.

During these kinds of situations the teacher can observe children's work habits even while working with other groups or individuals. Through the utilization of such periods he has opportunities to help children develop in self-reliance and self-discipline. In a very real sense, then, independent work is also group work, for the teacher so guides the children that the efforts of individuals are coordinated in the best interests of the group as a whole.

Organizing Independent Work Periods. The teacher faces some work-a-day problems in planning for independent work periods. One such problem is the length of time that is practicable for independent work. Your best guides in this regard are the developmental level of the children, the purposefulness of the activities carried on, and the kinds of learning materials utilized. It is better to have shorter periods in which good habits of work are developed than longer periods in which poor study habits result, due to fatigue, short attention span, inadequate materials, or lack of variety in activities. With shorter work periods planning tends to be more effective. The length of time for independent work will, therefore, vary from group to group in relation to maturity.

Another consideration involves materials. If independent work periods are to be well organized, there must be adequate materials with which children can work. Children must be supplied with enough books, enough maps or charts, enough construction material. The materials must be suitably gauged to the accomplishment levels of children so that they are able to work with them meaningfully and successfully. The materials must be purposeful to the individual children using them, and they must be sufficiently varied from day to day that children are not bored or indifferent in their individual work. Moreover, materials that are self-helps



Northwestern State College Elementary School, Natchitoches, La.

"Our children are learning what democratic group work means by working in groups."



State Teachers College, Trenton, N. J.



Eastern Washington College of Education, Cheney, Wash.

"Of course animals were only one of a wide variety of community resources that we used in our classroom."



Jackson, Mich., Public Schools



Los Angeles, Calif. Public Schools

"Getting answers to our questions by trips into the community was certainly satisfying to all of us."

Mesa, Ariz., Public Schools

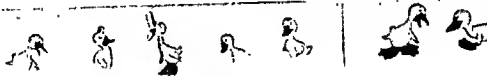




State Teachers College, Stankato, Miss

"My work brought me into contact with activities in the whole school."

West Liberty State College, West Liberty, W. V



in study, such as dictionaries and reference books, should be immediately accessible.

A third consideration concerns the development of habits of work, a primary purpose of independent work periods. Children cannot be expected to develop well in this respect without guidance. This means that acceptable behavior standards for independent work periods must be cooperatively established and lived up to. It means that for each independent work period the teacher must be sure that the children plan with him what they are to do, how they are to do it, and what they will do should they finish their original plans before the period is over. Throughout the period a quiet, businesslike atmosphere should prevail. Children should be considerate of others in asking help from the teacher. Movement around the room should be in terms of important needs only, and time should not be wasted in needless talking to neighbors, sporadic attention to the job at hand, or idleness. The beginnings of work periods are highly important. You will want children clearly to understand their tasks and their responsibilities, and have the necessary equipment or supplies at hand before starting their work. Otherwise the period has a disorganized beginning, with children who are not ready for work disrupting those who are. The few minutes it takes to prepare the children for independent work is saved many times over in the improved study situation which ensues.

A fourth consideration is evaluation. As with other types of work, appraisal is indispensable. At regular intervals you will want to discuss progress made, new goals, and children's questions concerning independent work. However, if within a given period work is not going well, to stop and evaluate right then may be imperative. Your best judgment is required in this matter, and your appraisal with the children should be specific, in terms of observed behavior, rather than general or abstract.

A fifth consideration is the conditions for study. Such factors as light, heat, ventilation, and seating have a marked effect on how children work. Distractions, needless interruptions, and unnecessary noise and movement keep children from concentrating on their jobs. As the work period begins, the teacher and children should scrutinize the working conditions and plan realistically to create the best situation for work that is feasible in terms of equipment, materials, physical surroundings, weather conditions, and time.

Suitable Activities for Independent Work. Not all types of activities carried on in the modern elementary school lend themselves to effective independent work. Some activities demand direct attention of the teacher in a group situation. Other activities are suitable only when necessary movement and noise will not interfere with the work of others.

In general, you know that independent work should be purposeful,

functional, and contributory in some way to the ongoing enterprises of the group. You know also that independent work must effectually contribute to the development of the individual. You realize that these must be jobs that the individual can successfully accomplish independently, both in the processes involved in the doing and in the products that are the normal expectation from the endeavor. Moreover, the activities should afford children variety—should avoid monotony and sameness.

To be more specific, there are types of activities that can be mentioned as suitable for independent work time:

1. *Recreational reading.* Children can profitably devote time to the reading of fiction, biography, poetry, and information. They can also read picture books or children's magazines and newspapers that are available.
2. *Research reading.* The individual may do reading either on topics or problems for which he has assumed responsibility to the group or in which he has a personal, special interest.
3. *Creative writing.* Children can be encouraged to create original stories, poems, descriptions, book reviews, news items for the school paper, informal essays, letters, riddles, diaries, and so on. In some cases, children may make personal copies of group-dictated materials.
4. *Creative art work.* Children may profitably work in various art media: painting, modeling, carving, crayoning, weaving, sewing, knitting, making block and spatter prints, and the like. This period may also be utilized for making holiday favors and gifts; for room decorations; for costume-making.
5. *Manipulatory experimentation.* Individuals may work with concrete materials that help to build concepts in mathematics, science, and the social studies; with puzzles that develop perception of likenesses and differences; with games that purposefully develop skills.
6. *Practice on skills.* Children may work with practice materials on specific skills in which they recognize their individual need for improvement. The individual might be working with one of the following, for example: handwriting, multiplication combinations, practical spelling lists, editing written work.
7. *Room and school duties.* In carrying out room responsibilities, children may: catalog or straighten the room library; care for plants or pets; tidy the housekeeping corner or supply cupboard; get mid-morning lunch supplies or rest equipment ready for the group; mount pictures for the room materials bureau.
In carrying out school responsibilities, children may: pump up soccer balls; act as school librarian; serve as school receptionist; care for school grounds; arrange hall bulletin boards; participate in all-school committee responsibilities.
8. *Activities related to room enterprises.* Sometimes there are jobs related to the unit of work or other room enterprises that individuals indicate a willingness to take on during independent work periods. Examples are: assembling an exhibit; arranging a bulletin-board display; making labels for a collection; planning a report or oral reading; arranging a bibliography of reading materials; making charts, graphs, slides, models; organizing the produce for the room grocery store.

can spend the remainder of the time available. It also constructively points out to the child that there are always other interesting things to do—that "time is what you do with it."

Finally, the modern teacher realizes that the products of independent work periods may be for the sheer joy of experimentation and creation; for personal utilitarian purposes; for the improvement of group living in the room environment; or for contribution to the on-going enterprises of the group.

Helping Children Improve in Work Habits. Children learn to improve in their abilities to work independently through wise teacher emphasis on processes of study. Whereas once the teacher was concerned almost entirely with products, the modern teacher guides children's attitudes toward study, their ways of working, and their development of self-reliance in solving unforeseen problems when they arise.

As the teacher observes children at work independently, he gets leads to ways in which he can help children improve their habits of study. That he may constructively aid individuals with specific work habits and study skills, he keeps such questions as the following in mind:

1. Does the child plan his job sufficiently before beginning his work?
2. Does he efficiently get his materials ready for work?
3. Does he avoid interfering with the work of others?
4. Is he developing in self-reliance?
5. Is he able to concentrate on the job at hand?
6. Does he manage his time economically?
7. Does he care for equipment properly?
8. Does he conserve supplies considerably?
9. Does he see his job through to satisfactory completion?
10. Are his products worthy of his best efforts?
11. Is he efficient in cleaning up and putting materials away at the end of the work period?
12. Does he satisfactorily follow through on his plans and live up to his agreements?
13. Is he developing further insight into what constitute good work habits?

The teacher's answers to such questions as these give him clues as to what next steps he needs to take in guiding the individual with his work habits. The child may need direct assistance. An individual conference may help him. Comparison of his recent work with earlier work may be effectual in showing progress and further needs. The child may ask specific questions the answers to which lead to improvement of his study skills. Occasionally, the child will be best helped through demonstration, through observing how other children do the same thing, through working directly with another child. Here the teacher's best judgment is his chief asset in determining what techniques may help the child to improve both the processes and products of his independent work.

If reliability and dependability in work habits are to be developed, independent work is necessary. Independent work time often demands that children work very quietly. However, the degree of quiet is relative to the types of work being done. Successful independent work is not too much to expect of children provided that the periods are not too long, that there are enough materials and equipment available, that children have had a share in planning, and that they will be given guidance in their individual undertakings when they need it.

INDEPENDENT WORK EXPERIENCES AT HOME

For many years teachers, children, and parents have been confused and frustrated by the many problems that the assignment of homework has posed. Children complain that homework robs them of play time, that they have too much of it, that they do not have proper facilities for work at home, that they get mixed up by the different methods of parents and teachers. Teachers complain because work comes from home hastily or incorrectly done, because parents give too much help or actually do the work for the children, because children and parents are lax in getting the homework back to school promptly. Parents complain that teachers' assignments are too long, that they have to drive their children to the homework tasks, that they have to do the work for their children, that they have to rob children of family experiences or valuable individual hobbies to get the homework in.

Modern elementary schools have abandoned the practice of assigning so many problems in arithmetic, so many words in spelling, so many pages of subject matter to be covered as homework. Modern teachers know that reliable research studies indicate clearly that even in the traditional school the typical homework assignment has practically no effect on the child's grades as determined in that kind of school. Modern schools realize that misconceptions, poor study habits, and frustrations frequently develop from assigned homework tasks and thus hinder rather than help the child in his learning.

Instead of homework that is rote memorization, page coverage in books, and non-functional drill on skills, the modern elementary school encourages children to engage in independent work experiences in their home environment. Creative teachers know that such work experience encourages further learning on one's own, helps to build meaningful concepts useful at school, and makes children resourceful in functional applications of subject matter, skills, attitudes, and appreciations. Forward-looking administrators see such independent work experiences at home as an important way to establish an educational partnership between the home and the school—a way through which the home and school

together provide for children learning experiences that are vital, rich, related, and continuing.

Desirable Types of Learning Experiences at Home. In place of routine assignments of home work, there are many potentialities for desirable learning experiences at home. Many types of activities previously suggested for independent work at school are also suitable for pursuit at home, namely recreational and research reading, creative writing, creative art work, manipulatory experiences, and activities centered in special occasions. The following types of activities may purposefully supplement and enrich the experiences which children are having at school:

1. *Exploring.* Children on their own or with their parents can take trips within their community which facilitate work at school: stores; new buildings in the process of construction; restaurants; parks; libraries.
2. *Experimenting.* Children can experience suitable scientific experimentation: help father repair a door bell; use a new diet with a pet; prepare simple foods.
3. *Constructing.* At home children can make models, scrapbooks, games, puzzles, slides, graphs, charts, puppets, posters, play equipment, repairs on equipment.
4. *Listening.* At home children can have stories read to them, follow worth while radio programs, hear stories told orally, or enjoy musical and narrative recordings that have educational entertainment values.
5. *Collecting.* Individuals can make collections of leaves, rocks, magazine pictures, stamps, postcards, poems, miniatures, and maps, which have not only avocational values but may also contribute directly to ongoing enterprises at school.
6. *Locating materials.* Frequently children can contribute directly to school activities by collecting in the home and community materials needed at school: materials for costumes; construction materials such as paper, cardboard, wood; back copies of magazines; samples of commercial products; living things.
7. *Using research materials.* Children can push ahead on research being done at school by utilizing maps, encyclopedias, globes, dictionaries, pamphlets, newspapers, and magazines found in their homes.
8. *Interviewing.* Individuals can independently interview neighbors, friends, relatives concerning information and ideas that are pertinent to the work being done at school.
9. *Assuming home responsibilities.* Children can develop in self-reliance and independence through such home duties as caring for pets, running errands, caring for clothing, assisting in household tasks, answering the telephone, shopping, and the like.
10. *Sharing.* Children may well share at home with their families important aspects of their learnings at school through discussion, oral reading, singing, story telling, demonstrating. They may also share and explain the products of their work done at school.

Of course another important experience for children at home is play: outdoor exercise, indoor diversions, dramatic play and informal drama-

tization, casual or organized group games, singing and folk games, and the like. Children always need plenty of time to play, for as one wise teacher has said, "Play is the work of childhood."

Preparation for Work at Home. School work should contribute to the child's out-of-school living and home experiences should facilitate the child's learning and living at school. This means that the experiences in independent work which the school encourages the child to engage in must, realistically, be purposeful and functional. This work should meet children's needs, help further to orient them in their community living, and foster individual interests.

The teacher must plan for and with children concerning their work at home. Such work is usually projected in the regular planning period. However, the evaluation period, which normally comes at the end of the school day, is an appropriate time. Occasionally the teacher may find it desirable to set aside a period especially for consideration of activities to be carried on at home.

Planning for these home experiences involves discussion in which children are stimulated to explore ideas, gather material, or make things that contribute to the on-going work at school. There are several closely related approaches to planning for children's purposeful home experiences that facilitate the work at school. You may make up with the children a series of statements telling what, in the various areas of the curriculum, the children are doing at school, with suggestions under each statement telling what the child might do at home to contribute to his school work. This list of suggestions can then be duplicated and sent home to the parents for guidance in giving their children worth-while out-of-school work. Volunteers may take on specific responsibilities to be done at home. Or the whole group may be stimulated through discussion to explore ideas and collect and make things that will contribute directly to the work currently being done at school. Actual ways of planning will vary as each approach is used. As the teacher, you will pre-plan for the children potential home contributions so that you can discuss the matter thoroughly with them. You will plan with the entire group as the lists of possibilities are actually developed. Individual or small-group conferences may be necessary in planning for specific responsibilities.

It is wise to plan with the children both what to do and how to do it. It is important that the activities should be those that children can do successfully on their own. It is necessary that the work conditions in the home be realistically taken into consideration. It is wise to suggest several choices of things to do. And it is most desirable to set with the children reasonable standards for the results or products of their work at home.

Using the Results of Home Work. When children have done independent work at home, it is imperative that it be used promptly at school.

The quality of the child's work will, of course, influence its usefulness. The teacher must remember, however, that the sheer utility of the product is always subordinate to the child's pride in his independent accomplishment and his continued desire to be self-reliant.

There are many times during the day when the teacher may use the results of functional, purposeful home work: sharing periods, committee group meetings, discussion periods, and broad-unit time, to mention a few. The creative teacher sees that the child maintains security in these endeavors, feels that his contributions are appreciated, and recognizes wherein he is developing in his habits of work. He encourages the child to share with his family and interpret, through his home work, the educative experiences he is having at school.

In conclusion, all types of work experiences at home must be coordinated with the various types of group work being carried on at school. Only as children make their unique contributions to the group life at school do they grow in the realization that there are significant relationships between their school living and the activities that they carry on in their home and their community.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

Since group dynamics are complex, and since much of your success as a teacher is dependent upon your handling of group situations, critical appraisal of your effectiveness with children in group situations is necessary. The following criteria may give you further clues for improving your guidance of group work.

1. *Using Principles of Group Work:*

As you have been working to apply the principles of group work suggested, with which ones have you been most effectual? Which are you working on to improve? What farther help do you need from your critic teacher?

2. *Guiding Discussion:*

With what aspects of discussion do the children whom you teach do well? What has been your part in their success? Where do they need further to improve? How do you plan to help them with next steps in their use of discussion techniques?

3. *Guiding Sharing Experiences:*

Concretely, what have you learned about the teacher's rôle in children's experiences with sharing? What evidences of improvements in children's ability to share can you cite? How can you become even more effective in your guidance of sharing?

4. *Guiding Children's Research:*

What have been your most successful experiences with research by children? Why do you think these the most successful? List specific ways

in which you can increase your effectiveness in developing children's research abilities.

5. *Guiding Independent Work Experiences:*

Make a check list of the various types of independent work experiences at home and school that you have employed. With which have you been most successful? Why?

What are your present plans for extending children's experiences in independent work at school? At home?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. In the light of the nine principles of good group work suggested in this chapter, explain specifically how you have been helping the children whom you teach to improve in their abilities to work together.
2. "Since intercommunication is the basis of democratic community living, teaching the skills of discussion is imperative in American public schools," is a thought recently expressed by an elementary supervisor. What skills of discussion are within the grasp of children in the elementary school? What habits and attitudes can be taught concomitantly?
3. In what ways can sharing periods contribute to the teacher's increasing understanding of the individual child's total development?
4. "My ten-year-old says he is doing 'research' at school!" exclaimed a startled parent. "How can that be? He is too young for that." How would you answer such a comment so that a parent would get, in layman's language, a comprehensive picture of how a child has research experiences at school?
5. As you recall the types of independent work experiences which the children whom you teach have been carrying on, which seem to have been most valuable to them? Why?
6. Parent cooperation is necessary if the antiquated "homework" idea is to be replaced with a modern concept of independent work at home. How can children help to change their parents' attitudes on this matter? What can the teachers do?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Association for Childhood Education, *Independent Work Periods* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1941).

In this pamphlet a group of teachers tell their ways of using independent work time purposefully and effectively. Most of the material applies particularly to the early-elementary grades.

BAXTER, Bernice and BRADLEY, Anne M., *An Overview of Elementary Education* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Company, 1945).

The importance of various aspects of group work in the classroom is discussed in Chapter 3, entitled "Teaching Principles and Procedures."

BAXTER, Bernice and CASSIDY, Rosalind, *Group Experience* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1943).

Part I of this book discusses group leadership, the face-to-face group, and the individual in the group. The writers not only give general principles for guiding group work but also include many helpful specific examples.

BENEDICT, Agnes and FRANKLIN, Adele, *The Happy Home: A Guide to Family Living* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948).

Presented in an interesting, informal manner, throughout this book you will find many practical suggestions for independent work experiences at home. This is also a fine book to share with parents for its many ideas about educational experiences that parents can provide for their children.

CARMICHAEL, Leonard (Editor), *Manual of Child Psychology* (New York, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1946).

On pages 957 through 967, a summary of sex differences in interests is presented which would be helpful in guiding suggestions for independent work experiences at home.

Glencoe, Illinois, Board of Education, *Together We Learn* (Glencoe, Illinois, The Board, 1942).

This booklet presents in readable fashion for parents and teachers specific suggestions for many types of independent work experiences in the home.

HILDRETH, Gertrude, *Child Growth Through Education* (New York, The Ronald Press, 1948).

On pages 281 through 293, the author lists many ideas that will give you clues for the improvement of independent habits of work.

HOCKETT, John A. and JACOBSEN, E. W., *Modern Practices in the Elementary School* (Boston, Ginn and Company, 1943).

Chapter VIII, entitled "Meeting Individual Needs," presents a number of practicable suggestions for guiding independent work.

National Council of Teachers of English, *An Experience Curriculum in English* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1935).

To help you in discussion and sharing periods, Chapter XII will give you suggestions for improving children's oral expression.

SALT, George, *Thinking Together* (Chicago, National Council of Teachers of English, 1941).

Within a brief space of twenty-five pages, this writer presents interesting, practical helps to the successful guidance of discussion groups.

CHAPTER XI

Utilizing Community Resources

The community in which the child lives is his laboratory for learning. Vital learning depends upon the direct experiences of the child as he seeks to understand his environment, learns ways of adjusting to it when he cannot change it, and develops the attitudes and skills by which it is improved. The child needs many meaningful first-hand experiences with his physical surroundings, with man's use of raw materials, and with the human relationships involved. The out-of-school living of any child inevitably includes an experience of sorts with these things. Far too often, however, the child has little opportunity to use in school his community experience; far too seldom is he able to apply in his daily living that which is being learned at school. The elementary school which is not utilizing directly and continuously the resources of the community is not playing a major rôle in the education of children.

In pioneering times children were directly involved in carrying on the simple processes of living. They learned by doing, through participation in building the shelter, in securing and preparing the food, in obtaining raw materials and making clothing, in caring for animals that furnished transportation and that helped with the labor, and in other important social processes. In this simple culture the child experienced whole processes: from the planting of the seed corn to the eating of the vegetable; from the cleaning of the gun to the wearing of the leather jacket; from the felling of the tree to the shelter of the log cabin. Schooling had little to do with these important functions. Children were sent to school—when they could be spared from home tasks—to learn to read, write, and figure. Thus the curriculum of the school, for the most part, revolved about books—books that told of strange people and far-away places.

As the processes by which social functions were carried on became more complex, factories, shops, and specialized workers took over many functions previously performed in the home. Today children no longer participate in, or even have opportunity to observe, whole processes. The wheat leaves the farm home as grain and returns as bread or breakfast cereal; the pig departs alive and healthy and returns as pork chops or gloves; the milk is sent off in large cans and returns as cheese or ice cream. The city child seldom observes even the beginning of the process.

Bread comes from the delivery truck; the house is already built; clothing originates in the store; the new automobile is driven home from the salesroom.

Thus the school of today must play a greatly expanded rôle. Education must be concerned with helping children understand the whole processes by which our needs for food, clothing, shelter, conservation, transportation, communication, recreation, and other goods and services are met. The child needs also to see where he fits into the picture; to see how his family contributes; to see how he, himself, participates and can participate more fully. Merely hearing about these things or reading from books is not enough. Young children, in the early-elementary grades, learn most readily from first-hand experiences which give them sensory impressions of feeling, seeing, smelling, hearing, and tasting. Older children, in the later-elementary grades, are still learning largely from direct contacts with processes, materials, and equipment. Even the vicarious learning of these older children depends for its effectiveness upon related direct experiences in the immediate community.

This is not to imply that the reading of books will play an insignificant part in the education of children in modern schools. On the contrary, many more books will be read, with infinitely more meaning. Much knowledge from books can be verified, and more fully understood, by rich direct experience. Nor will other skills such as computation, correct usage, handwriting, and spelling be neglected. The study of the community will provide stimulation for genuine comprehension and improvement in these skills as children come to understand the importance of them in the life of the community.

The school directly utilizes the resources in the community in three ways. First, the children are taken from the school building to study the various activities and materials of the community at first hand. Second, people are brought to the school to help children interpret their environment. Third, concrete materials from the community are used in the school. This chapter will be devoted to a consideration of these three uses of the resources of the community.

EDUCATIONAL TRIPS

Trips into the community by groups of children will be rich in vital learnings if they are carefully chosen, thoughtfully planned, and sensibly conducted. It is particularly important that the educational trip be thought of by the teacher and the children as a significant learning experience rather than as a picnic, excursion, or sight-seeing tour. There is, of course, a place for school parties, picnics, and other entertainments but these must not be confused with the educational trip. Children will

ordinarily cooperate when the purposefulness of the trip is clear to them and they are aware that they are representing their school before the public. When children have a real part in deciding upon and planning a trip, in accordance with their developmental level, they are likely to comprehend its educational significance and go about it with serious attitudes.

Educational trips may be divided into two general categories: the informal walking trip and the extensively organized trip. Although these two types of trips have many elements in common, they are sufficiently different as to purpose, planning, conduct, and follow-up that they should be considered distinctively.

Purposes of Informal Walking Trips. Valuable resources for teaching lie within walking distance of every elementary school. This is obviously true of the town and city school but fits the rural school as well, with its fields, streams, farms, soils, rocks, flowers, animals, and insects. The area surrounding the school can be used again and again for the informal walking trip. Trips of this type do not demand extensive arrangements or long-range planning. They can be made by any classroom group. They can be made frequently, but usually for short periods of time.

You will want to help children understand as well as they can the broad aims of walking trips. However, with your maturity and understanding of how children learn, you will be able to appreciate more fully the educational values involved. The following broad aims may help you to make the most of the informal walking trip:

1. To vitalize school living and learning
2. To stimulate initial interest in a broad unit of work or other study
3. To provide means of obtaining information that can be gained in no other way
4. To increase interest in, and respect for, the school neighborhood
5. To observe with insight, accuracy, and focus upon that which was set out to be seen
6. To develop appreciation of workers, processes, materials, and equipment in the neighborhood
7. To make concrete and real what would otherwise remain abstract
8. To gather needed materials from the immediate environment
9. To verify and supplement information gained from reading and listening
10. To learn behavior appropriate to a group trip
11. To improve group morale.

Specific purposes for walking trips vary greatly. The trip may or may not relate to the broad unit of work or other on-going school studies. It may be exploratory to gain ideas for further study. It may be for the purpose of answering a very specific question that has arisen. It may be devoted to satisfying natural curiosity about something new in the environment. A walking trip may be taken to:

1. Become acquainted with the neighborhood.
2. Study architecture or construction on a new house.
3. Observe seasonal changes in nature.
4. Obtain needed material from a nearby store.
5. Identify the different kinds of stores, or service centers, or small industries in the neighborhood.
6. Locate the homes of various children in the group.
7. See a child's garden, or pet, or workshop.
8. Collect interesting stones or leaves, or samples of building materials.
9. Investigate the effects of a heavy rain as to soil erosion, or drainage, or nurture of growing things.
10. Explore an area in search of Indian arrow heads, or clay, or seeds.
11. Visit a neighbor to see a collection of glass antiques.
12. Watch the stream-lined train go by.
13. Visit a small neighborhood bakery.
14. Dig holes to determine depth of top soil at top and bottom of a slope in a neighboring field.
15. Watch a cobbler repair shoes.
16. Watch a neighboring farmer use a new farm machine.
17. Study the new traffic signs.
18. Watch the postal truck deliver mail to the nearby storage box.
19. See a newborn calf.
20. Watch a steam shovel at work.

While you may not be able to take these specific walking trips, the list may suggest to you other similar experiences. You will notice that the types of destinations include: where plants grow; where minerals may be observed and collected; where animals are cared for; where construction is in progress; where things are made; where services are given; where relics of the past are preserved; where hobbies are followed; where people live; and where products are distributed.

Guiding Informal Walking Trips. Although they need not be extensive, arrangements must be carefully made. Your critic teacher will tell you what steps have already been taken to secure the coöperation of parents for this kind of trip. Some school faculties feel that the permission of parents is not necessary for these brief walking trips since there is usually less danger involved than in the ordinary daily walk to school. Other schools, however, obtain a blanket permission from each parent to cover the entire school year. The principal of the school will want to know where you are going, why you are going, when you will leave, and when you expect to arrive back at school. Sufficient discussion should precede the trip that the children are quite clear as to its purpose. Standards of behavior must be established for these walking trips and reviewed, however briefly, before each new experience of this kind. Consideration of necessary safety precautions should be included in this briefing, especially when the children may be faced with safety hazards not normally encountered as a large group. Finally, before leaving the building, the

children should tend to their toilet needs and you should see that the children are properly clothed.

Follow-up discussions should be held immediately upon return to school. Discussion should include consideration of significant observations while children's remembrance is vivid. However, the time allowed should be sufficiently brief that, while succinctness of contributions is encouraged, aimless rambling or forced concentration are avoided. Even when the interest is particularly keen, however, and important clarification and assimilation of that which has been observed is going on, the teacher must avoid lengthy discussion. Here you must use your judgment. In some cases it may be wise to terminate the discussion with much left unsaid but with agreements to come back to it the following day.

Frequently recording of information about the experience by group dictation will be educationally satisfying. On occasion, however, recording will be unnatural and inappropriate. In many cases such written records will not be made until the day following the trip. A lapse of time frequently makes possible deeper insight into what has been seen, more effective assimilation of new learnings, and clearer organization of data. Furthermore written records should approximate the best work that the children can do—a quality of written work often not achieved immediately after a stimulating trip and adequate follow-up discussion. Activities relating to the walking trip, such as painting, dramatizing, modeling, creative writing, organization of exhibits and collections, should be spontaneous rather than forced and natural rather than stilted. The student teacher will wisely take the position that these activities may be carried on at any free-choice time, that he will help with them, but that they are not necessary or expected as some sort of payment for the privilege of taking the trip.

Extensively Organized Trips. The dividing line between walking trips and extensively organized trips is not always completely clear. In general, however, the extensively organized trip is different in that it must be the outgrowth of long-range planning, in that extensive arrangements must be made, in that it is necessary for success with a major area of the school curriculum, and in that extensive follow-up activities are needed to round out the trip experience. While many walking trips are desirable and possible, the organized trips will be planned and carried out at longer intervals. In a broad unit of work lasting for several months, for example, probably not more than two or three such trips should be attempted. The same would be true if a group were studying their own state in geography class or the western movement in the history class. The wisdom of this suggested limitation can be seen when one considers the planning activities involved, the time needed at school to use the direct learning

gained on trips, the effort demanded of people in the community, the expense of the undertaking, and the specific contributions of the teacher and other school workers.

Broad Aims of Extensively Organized Trips. The student teacher who would use trips effectively will be quite clear as to the potential values of such experiences. To help you think through desired outcomes, the following broad aims of extensively organized trips are presented:

1. To vitalize and give real meaning to a major area of the school curriculum through making concrete what may otherwise remain abstract
2. To verify and supplement information gained from reading and listening which is needed in an important area of the school curriculum
3. To obtain a body of closely related data not otherwise available
4. To extend and clarify understandings of the interdependence of people within a community
5. To aid children in gaining understanding and insight into whole processes by which basic needs are met
6. To develop understanding of, and respect for, the work that men are doing and have done in the community
7. To extend understandings of how man adapts to, controls, and uses his natural environment
8. To develop appreciation of the differences that modern tools and machines make in the way people live
9. To develop worth-while attitudes and better understandings between children and adults
10. To forge a stronger connecting link between the school and the community through which public respect for, and interest in, the school is fostered.

Specific Purposes of Extensively Organized Trips. Every extensively organized trip should be directed toward achieving clear, definite, and specific purposes. The specific purpose of a trip will be determined through consideration of the needs of the group, the ongoing study, the particular school community, and the accessibility of available resources. In planning a trip, merely to decide upon a destination is not enough. A trip to a given place may be undertaken for any one of several specific purposes. It may be for general exploration, to answer specific questions, or to observe processes. Moreover, within the specific purposes the primary emphasis may vary greatly. A group of children might take a trip to an airport to study different types of airplanes, or to find out about a new, large cargo plane, or to study aircraft communication, or to find out about the various workers at the airport, or to find out how a plane lands and takes off, or to find out what happens to mail and baggage, or to find out about ground servicing of passenger planes. A number of potential trips, each with a specific purpose and primary emphasis, are suggested here to stimulate your thinking as to the wide range of possibilities:

<i>Destination</i>	<i>Specific Purpose</i>	<i>Primary Emphasis</i>
Historical museum	for general exploration	of materials available on pioneer life
Wholesale house	to answer specific questions	about how bananas are brought to wholesale houses, cared for, and distributed to retailers
Cannery	to observe the process	by which whole ears of corn become cans of corn
Railroad station	for general exploration	of the kinds of work necessary in railroad transportation
Dairy farm	to answer specific questions	about how cows are cared for and milked
Lumber yard	to answer specific questions	about different kinds of building materials
Stone quarry	for general exploration	of the excavation, and of how the stone is obtained
Railroad station	to answer specific questions	about diesel engines
Print shop	for general exploration	of how printing is done
Art museum	to answer specific questions	about Chinese culture: metal work; ceramics; paintings; stone carvings
Post office	to observe processes	by which letters and packages are received and prepared for distribution
Model home	for general exploration	of modern improvements made possible by technological progress
Department store	for general exploration	of various departments and workers
Radio station	to answer specific questions	about how broadcasts take place
Farm	to answer specific questions	about how baby animals are born and raised
Wharf	to answer specific questions	about freighters: from where they came; products; how unloaded
Dairy	to observe the process	by which ice cream is made
Flour mill	to observe the process	by which grain becomes flour

<i>Destination</i>	<i>Specific Purpose</i>	<i>Primary Emphasis</i>
House under construction	to answer specific questions	about what various construction workers do
Super-market	for general exploration	of products sold
Shoe factory	to observe the process	by which leather is made into shoes
Water works	to answer specific questions	about source and quantity of water, and how purified
Farm	to answer specific questions	about modern methods of preventing soil erosion
Apartment building	for general exploration	of construction, arrangement of living space, and maintenance

Each of the destinations mentioned above will suggest many others to you. Types of destinations for extensively organized trips include: transportation terminals, scenes of conservation activities, centers of communication, natural sources of raw materials, industrial plants, cultural centers, centers of food production and distribution, scenes of construction, and structures.

Closely related to specific purposes is the question, "When should the trip be taken?" A trip may be taken as one of the preliminary experiences by which children become more interested in and expand the scope of a study or broad unit of work. It may be taken after the research is well started. Or it may be one of the culminating activities. Usually, however, the extensively organized trip is most valuable as a research experience undertaken when the study or unit is well under way. Children are more likely to gain optimum learning from field experiences of this type after backgrounds for understanding have been carefully built through careful discussion, walking trips, personal interviews, reading, viewing flat or motion pictures, and examining specimens and samples. The number of trips contemplated enters realistically into the question of "when." For example, if only two trips are possible, it would seem inadvisable in most cases to use one of them for either a preliminary experience or a culminating activity. Finally, and obviously, a given trip should be taken at the time it promises to be most fruitful as an educational experience. Taking trips simply because it is the educationally fashionable thing to do is, of course, indefensible. Equally objectionable and sterile is the practice of scheduling trips months ahead—a practice which effectively prevents using trips at the most appropriate time to achieve specific purposes.

Making Arrangements for the Extensively Organized Trip. Although the children may help in many ways, the teacher must accept full responsibility for seeing that adequate arrangements are made. There are decisions to be made and problems to be met for which the children will not have sufficient maturity or background of experience. When arranging for a trip, you will need to consider such responsibilities as these:

1. *To locate sources.* The student teacher will be responsible for finding out what community resources are available to enrich and vitalize the study.

2. *To determine that the proposed trip is suitable and safe.* Before the group has decided that a given destination might be just the place to go, the student teacher must determine suitability and safety.

3. *To find out whether or not the group will be welcome.* Some schools have a list of places in the community where groups are welcome. Other teachers or parents may assist in obtaining entrance. In any case, the final invitation must be obtained by the student teacher directly from a responsible person at the destination.

4. *To find out what the proposed trip offers in significant learning.* The student teacher should make the trip himself before taking the children. In this way he not only determines what is available but also finds out what is the best time to see important things.

5. *To determine the best time for the trip.* The student teacher, with the guidance of the critic teacher, must decide upon the most appropriate time for the trip. This decision will be made in terms of the needs of the children, of the demands of the study itself, of the particular destination, and of the problem of transportation.

6. *To plan with a responsible person at the destination.* When the student teacher makes his trip, prior to taking the children, he should find out who is to act as guide or host and plan with him. Such matters as safety precautions, what is to be seen, how long the group is to stay, who is to make explanations, and when the children may ask questions should be considered. The student teacher should also attempt to orient the guide to the maturity level of the children and the educational purpose of the trip.

7. *To arrange for parents or other adults to help with the trip.* Adults who assist with trips not only help in the management of transportation and care of the children but also are provided an important opportunity to understand children better and to see the values of such experiences. Sometimes it can be arranged so that a small group of children stays with one adult throughout the trip. In this way the teacher can be free for general supervision and to help interpret explanations.

8. *To arrange for transportation.* In some schools the principal takes this responsibility. In others the student or critic teacher will have to arrange for the bus, taxicabs, private cars, street car, or train. If private cars are to be used, it is usually advisable to plan for one more car than you think you need. Furthermore, it is recommended that the cars stay close together, following a common route, with the student teacher continually alert en route to any problems or delays. Finally, the drivers must be briefed as to parking arrangements at the destination.

9. *To secure permission of parents in writing.* The note or letter requesting permission may be dictated to the teacher by the group and then duplicated by the teacher or copied by the children. On occasion, children in the later-

elementary grades may write to their parents individually after the general content of the message has been worked out by the group. The communication should include a simple statement of the specific purpose of the trip, the destination, the times, method of transportation, and expense to parents. The letter should be written in such a way that the parent need only sign his name rather than write a complete communication. Written permission from the parents of each child must be on file before embarking on the trip. Cruel though it might seem, individual children will at times be left at the school when parents refuse such permission or the child neglects his responsibility in obtaining it.

10. *To anticipate difficulties.* Trips which are carefully arranged and planned usually go very well. But there are circumstances over which you will have no control. You will need to anticipate such potential difficulties as the late arrival of the bus, the sudden illness of a child, inclement weather or an unexpected storm, changed conditions at the destination, and misbehavior of the children. You will do well to have thought through beforehand your procedures in case these or similar difficulties arise. It is advisable to have with you the home telephone number of each child and to find out before starting on a trip where the school principal and the school nurse may be reached.

11. *To secure the school principal's approval of arrangements and plans.* When the proposed trip is receiving consideration for the first time, suggestions, advice, and tentative approval of the administrative head of the school must be sought. After extensive arrangements have been made, his final approval will be obtained. The student teacher should prepare a brief written memorandum for the principal including such information as: specific purpose, times, names of adults taking the trip, transportation arrangements, name and telephone number of person to contact at the destination, and evidence that permission of parents has been obtained. Your school may have an established form on which to record this information.

Although the teacher accepts final responsibility for seeing that adequate arrangements are made, the children will be able to help in many ways. They can learn to consider appropriate places to visit and should participate in the choice of the destination. A few of the children might go along on the teacher's exploratory trip to share in making arrangements. The children will participate directly in obtaining permission from their parents to take the trip. They sometimes can make the necessary arrangements with special teachers whose classes they will miss while away from school. They can compute costs when expense is involved. They can figure the necessary departure time in order to arrive at the destination on schedule. They can assist in filling out the trip form or memorandum that provides the principal with pertinent information. They can prepare a list of children's home telephone numbers for the use of the teacher. Determining the materials needed—pencils, notebooks, containers, sketch pads, cameras, field glasses—should be the responsibility of the children. Such participation by children in arranging for a trip must be directed and coordinated by the teacher. Their responsibilities

must be definite and specific so that each child is quite clear as to his particular rôle.

Making Final Preparations for the Extensively Organized Trip. An important phase of final preparations is making agreements on standards of behavior. Adequate time must be provided for careful discussion of the kind of behavior which will permit the children to gain optimum learnings from the trip and, as representatives of their school, make a good impression on the public. The discussion and the resulting agreements should deal with safety precautions, courteous consideration for persons contacted en route and at the destination, courteous consideration for members of their own group, and care of property. At the conclusion of the discussion, it is usually advisable to record the agreements on the chalkboard as the children dictate. The teacher frequently makes a reading chart of these standards of behavior and the children, particularly those in the later-elementary grades, may make individual copies. One group of nine-year-olds dictated this chart.

Conduct on Our Trip

On our trip we should:

1. Stay in our seats on the bus and talk quietly.
2. Stay with our group leader.
3. Listen quietly when the guides talk to us.
4. Touch things only when they tell us we can.
5. Remember that everyone wants to see and hear.
6. Be courteous to our hosts.
7. Not run or push at any time.

Agreements of this type are not all-inclusive. They should be kept simple and in the language of the children. Above all, they should be genuine and represent real agreements. Children must not be taken from the school until the teacher and the group have agreed upon sensible standards of behavior, realistic in terms of maturity levels, and every child has accepted responsibility for living up to them. Furthermore, the children should understand that, if there is general violation of agreements, the trip will be terminated. Back at school, in such a case, the teacher and the children will consider how appropriate apologies can best be made to inconvenienced adults.

Another phase of final preparations is that of defining specific purposes. Children should start out on the trip with well-defined purposes in mind. These may be stated as questions to be answered or things to look for. It is particularly important that not too much be attempted on any one trip and that the statement of specific purposes is clear and concise. Many teachers take dictation from the group and then duplicate the lists of questions, or things to look for, so that each child has his own copy. At times it is advisable for the children to assume special responsibilities for

seeing that specific purposes are achieved. Thus, individual children would have special responsibility for seeing that certain questions are asked and adequately answered.

Children should leave the school to start on a trip clear and definite as to their purposes, and with agreements that these purposes will not be abandoned in favor of temporary interests. A group may go to a historical museum, for example, to answer a series of questions about the development of transportation. The many other interesting things at the museum should not distract them from their specific purposes in taking the trip. At times this calls for self-discipline of the highest order.

A further aspect of final preparations is provision for health and comfort. Prior to the day of the trip there should be some discussion of appropriate clothing. On certain trips, the oldest clothing of the children will be more suitable than their best. If considerable time is to be spent within a warm building, plans should be made for the removal of outer garments. Immediately before setting out on the trip, the children should have an opportunity to tend to toilet needs. In planning the trip careful consideration should be given to the element of fatigue: amount of walking, travel time, time at destination, opportunities for brief rest, over-stimulation.

Adults who are helping with the trip should be familiar with purposes, pertinent arrangements, and agreements on standards of behavior. When practical, it is desirable that the adult helpers be present at the final planning session when these important considerations are reviewed. Each adult acting as group leader needs to know his particular responsibilities and the names of the children who are to stay with him.

Taking the Extensively Organized Trip. Within the classroom the crite teacher and the student teacher frequently work as co-teachers with divided responsibilities. However, when children are taken from the school for an educational trip, it is usually desirable that one adult be directly in charge. The children and the helping adults must know to whom they are responsible during the trip. If you are in charge of the trip, then you will want to be intelligently aware of how plans are progressing, not counting on someone else to take care of things that you forget or overlook. If you have the following considerations well in mind as you take the trip, it will help make the learning experience successful:

1. Seeing that the trip is carried out essentially as planned
2. Directing children to concentrate their attentions on that which they set out to observe
3. Guiding the children to seek answers to each of the questions listed in their pre-planning of the trip
4. Encouraging new questions that are pertinent to the specific purposes of the trip

5. Making a memo of questions or observations which will need further clarification back at school
6. Arranging for all of the children to see and hear important things
7. Helping children interpret what they see and hear
8. Giving over-all supervision to behavior and seeing that agreements are abided by
9. Being sensitive to the passing of time so that appropriate attention can be given to all important observations and arrival back at school will be on schedule
10. Seeing that articles of equipment—notebooks, check lists, sketch pads, field glasses, cameras, containers—are appropriately used
11. Taking periodic counts to be sure that all of the children are with the group
12. Making prompt decisions in case change of plans is necessary.

This list might convey the impression that when you are in charge of a trip your rôle will be difficult, with far too much to do and think about. If the trip is well-planned, this will not be the case. Moreover, the children's previous experience with you on walking trips and the responsibilities which you have delegated to accompanying adults will lighten your load. You will, however, as part of your pre-planning find it helpful to make a checklist for yourself of these responsibilities and to give some thought as to how you might meet them. If you are not in charge of the trip, you will want to be quite clear as to your rôle: assuming responsibilities specifically delegated to you, thinking through your course of action in emergencies, observing insightfully to supplement children's observations, and preparing to contribute to follow-up experiences. Through such assistance, you not only contribute directly to the success of the field experience but you also can gain added insight into educational values and acceptable procedures for extensively organized trips.

Guiding Follow-up Experiences. The educational value of the extensively organized trip is determined to a large degree by the character of the follow-up activities. If optimum learning is to result from the trip experience, the children will need to appraise their behavior and their observation techniques. Furthermore they will need guidance in gaining deeper insight into, and assimilation of, that which has been observed. Follow-up experiences, then, will include an evaluation of the trip, expressions of appreciation to adult helpers, discussions devoted to extending and clarifying meanings, recording of the experience, and plans for using the new learnings.

To know the times when the follow-up discussion of a serious nature will not be beneficial may be a problem. Upon returning to school the children, stimulated by what they have seen and heard, will often want to exchange small-talk about interesting experiences. The teacher may enter

into these relaxing discussions without attempting to manipulate or strongly guide at this point. If the trip has been completed in the morning, the children may be ready by the afternoon session to begin their serious discussions. Follow-up discussion of a serious nature is frequently, however, more successful when it is deferred until the day following the trip. Immediately upon return to school the children are apt to be overstimulated and in need of quiet relaxation. Moreover, a lapse of time will allow children better to assimilate and organize their new learnings, and to see important relationships more clearly. On the other hand, follow-up discussions should not ordinarily be deferred beyond the day immediately following the trip lest important impressions be lost through forgetting.

Discussion activities following the trip usually begin with a general appraisal. The teacher guides the children in a consideration of the extent to which specific purposes were achieved and plans carried out. Such questions as these might be raised:

1. In what ways was this a good trip?
2. What did you enjoy most?
3. Had we made sensible plans?
4. Did we do what we had planned to do?
5. Did we get answers to all of our questions?
6. Did we live up to our agreements about conduct on the trip?
7. Should we do anything differently on our next trip?
8. Should we recommend this trip to any other group of children?

Discussions following trips can be so thorough in detail, monotonous, repetitive of the obvious, methodical, or even negative that normal feelings of joy and satisfaction associated with the field experience are chilled. Although the extensively organized trip is serious business and concerned with vital learning, too much pressure or untimely overemphasis upon utility can dull children's appetites for future experiences of this kind. As much as is possible the positive, the enjoyable, the thrilling, the achieving aspects of the trip should be emphasized.

Another necessary follow-up activity is that of expressing appreciation to those who helped with the trip. This experience is of value to children not only for the social learnings involved but also for the functional use of oral and written language skills. A given group might decide to express appreciation in one or more, or a combination, of the following ways:

1. Write a thank-you letter to the manager of the bakery who helped make arrangements and acted as guide.
2. Write thank-you letters to parents who helped on the trip.
3. Send a delegation of children to thank the principal orally for his help in arranging the trip, and to share with him the group's evaluation of the experience.

4. Delegate individual children to call on the telephone to thank adults who helped with transportation.
5. Send a series of drawings or paintings to the baker who carefully explained how he baked the bread.
6. Send to the manager of the bakery copies of stories written about the trip that tell how much the children gained from the experience.

Letters of appreciation at the early-elementary school level should be dictated to the teacher as a group experience. Frequently all of the children profit from making a copy of the letter, after which one child's work is chosen to be sent through the mail. While legibility is important, there should be some attempt to rotate among the children the privilege of having their copy of the letter used. In the later-elementary grades the group may dictate to the teacher or, after discussion of what is to be said, each child may write independently. Language books in your school will undoubtedly have some useful suggestions for letter writing to help the children at this time.

Expressing appreciation through oral communication calls for preparation. If a few children are to go to thank the principal or another teacher who has been helpful, the whole group may profitably discuss together what is to be said and the gracious way to say it. Talking on the telephone is a rare experience for some children. Thanking a helper over the telephone affords an opportunity for valuable learning in how properly to use this method of oral communication. Here, too, there should be careful consideration by the group of the nature of the communication.

Ideas and meanings gained on the trip can be extended and clarified through follow-up experiences. Through observation children have environmental contacts which bring new concepts and insights. Usually, however, children need further explanation and experience to understand fully what they have observed. Increased understandings sometimes emerge from the group discussions in which children explain to each other. The teacher helps with timely explanations, by reading to the children, and by using pertinent visual aids and concrete materials. Frequently the drive for further understanding leads to considerably more individual and group research, and on rare occasions to another trip to the same destination.

The teacher and the children will need to agree on some plan by which a record of the trip is made for future reference. The recording is usually a group effort but it can, particularly with later-elementary school children, be a compilation of individual contributions. The record may be one, or a combination of several, of the following: experience charts, a series of anecdotal records, a story for the school newspaper, a play, a series of paintings or sketches with narrative captions, or a series of photographs with supplementary explanatory material. Whatever form

it takes, the record should emphasize important learnings: factual information acquired, relationships perceived, understandings deepened, attitudes altered, appreciations heightened, and behavior modified. The record should genuinely reflect the ideas of the children. For this reason, particularly, it must wait until there has been sufficient follow-up discussion to insure that learnings have been clarified and assimilated.

As much as is possible the recording should actually be the work of the children. When the teacher takes dictation from the group for an experience chart, he should be careful not to suggest the recording of learnings that were hoped-for outcomes of the trip but not actually realized by the children. The dictation for the most part should be taken down as it is said by the children in their own language. This caution applies equally, of course, to the dictation by individual children as they tell anecdotes or say what is to be written under their paintings. Other forms of recording may be entirely the work of children.

Plans for Using New Learnings. Uses to be made of the learnings from extensively organized trips will depend largely upon the specific purposes for which they were undertaken. It will be remembered that the trip is primarily a research experience, and as such is related closely to ongoing curriculum work, whether in the subject-centered, the correlated, or the integrated program. Thus the new information, insights, and understandings will vitalize, supplement, and give rich meaning to areas of the curriculum. More specifically, the new learnings can be effectively used in carrying on a variety of activities by which the data are clarified, more fully understood, assimilated and organized for use. You will recall that these activities include: socially useful work, experimentation, collections and exhibits, verbalization, play and dramatics, construction, and aesthetic experiences.

As an example of how new learnings may be used, suppose that a group of eight-year-olds studying about dairy products took a trip to a large dairy. They wanted to verify previous learnings and to learn more about how milk is pasteurized, bottled, and further prepared for distribution, and how butter is made. After they had carefully discussed the trip and made adequate records of the experience, they were ready to talk about activities through which they would use their information. In group discussion they considered doing some of the following:

1. *Investigating sources and care of milk at home and at school.* The children considered a plan by which they would individually determine whether the milk consumed in their homes was properly pasteurized and cared for. They agreed that this would involve further study so that they could actually ascertain that the milk had been pasteurized. They thought, too, that they needed to know more about what proper care entailed. They discussed the idea of following their home investigations with a similar examination of the milk supply at school. (Socially useful work)

2. *Making butter at school.* Plans were projected for making butter at school with an old-fashioned churn that belonged to the grandmother of one of the children. They discussed the quantity and cost of the cream, how they would pay for it, the process, the seasoning. There was some discussion of a party in which they could use their butter. (Experimentation)

3. *Illustrating the process of handling milk hygienically.* The group talked about collecting a series of pictures that, appropriately arranged, would show the process by which milk is hygienically handled from the milking of the cow to human consumption. They thought that a brief story explaining each picture could be dictated to the teacher. (Collections and exhibits)

4. *Sharing their information about milk with another classroom group.* They discussed the advisability of inviting another group of children to a program in which they would tell the story of the pasteurization of milk. They thought that just talking about milk would not make a very interesting program. They agreed that if they had the program they would also need to use pictures. They considered, too, which group in the school would most appreciate such a program. (Verbalization)

5. *Writing and presenting a play about Pasteur.* The eight-year-olds considered writing and giving a play which would very simply tell the story of Pasteur's great discovery. They thought that one act might deal with the discovery and that a second act could take place in a modern dairy with the workers talking about pasteurization. Everyone agreed that if they wrote a play it should be done by group dictation to the teacher. (Play and dramas)

6. *Building a model of a dairy.* Some of the children wanted to build a dairy on the floor at one side of the room. Discussion revolved about the acquiring of materials and tools, parts of the dairy that would be constructed, and who would do the work. They thought that the model might serve as a setting for a play. (Construction)

7. *Making a large mural showing the process of butter making.* There was considerable enthusiasm about painting a large mural. The group discussed what they could show in such a mural. Some children, however, thought that the process could be shown more clearly with a series of paintings. These could be put together with narrative captions and made into a roller movie to be used in a program. (Aesthetic experience)

The above illustrations of activities considered by one group are not meant to imply that you should strain to plan with your children an activity of each type. Moreover, as you have observed, these types of activities are not mutually exclusive. Writing and presenting a play, for example, involves verbalization, construction, and aesthetic experiences.

Children usually are most enthusiastic about those follow-up activities in which they use new learnings. The teacher's rôle is to see that they realistically undertake only those activities with which they are likely to succeed, to provide that the group plans carefully and well, to help at appropriate times with the work, to see that the children are living up to their responsibilities, and, above all, to guide children in these activities so that they are gaining further clarification, assimilation, and organization of their new information.

As ongoing curriculum work creates need for the research experience of a trip, and the trip results in purposeful activities, so can these activities furnish impetus and leads to further learning. Out of these plans for using new learnings from extensively organized trips, the children come to see other potentialities for new learning experiences. As they carry on these activities, new questions arise, new problems are posed, new topics discussed, which may lead them to further explorations of ideas and plans for other vital trip experiences.

USING HUMAN RESOURCES

The modern school utilizes the resources of the community not only through educational trips but by having people come to the school as well. To meet a specific need it is sometimes more suitable to have a person contribute in the school than to take the children into the community. You are quite aware of the practical limitations involved in taking frequent educational trips, particularly those which demand extensive preparation. Those limitations, for the most part, do not apply to using human resources in the classroom. In any case, an effective balance between taking the children into the community and bringing the community to the children is characteristic of modern school practice. The assistance of certain members of the community can be given most efficiently at the school; particular contributions of others must be made at the school or not at all. Moreover, there are valuable concomitant learnings as children carry out plans for making visitors comfortable, for making the most of the human resource, and for extending expressions of appreciation.

Purposes for Using Human Resources. The values accruing from the use of people from the community in the school program may be discussed under two headings. First, a better school program may be realized. Through direct contact with adults who have something of importance to offer, children are helped to interpret their environment. Through this further opportunity to understand and appreciate the work that people do, the attitudes they hold, the behavior they value, and the knowledge and talents they possess, children gain insight into life in their culture. They gain information not available to them from any other source. They come to understand adults better and gain respect for them. They learn how to make friends and communicate with adults with whom they are not well acquainted.

The second over-all purpose in using human resources in the school is that people in the community may better understand the school program, develop increased interest in it, and become personally identified with its on-going work. These aims may be partially achieved as adults visit

the school to observe the children at work, listen to talks about the school curriculum, and participate in adult study groups. Experienced teachers know that this purpose is more likely to be fully realized when adults contribute directly and actively in children's work, and have their contributions appropriately recognized.

The extent to which, as a student teacher, you use the people of the community in your classroom will depend somewhat on prevailing practices in the school. In most school situations you will be encouraged and helped to enrich the school living of the children in this manner. You will, of course, need to depend upon the critic teacher for advice and guidance, especially in deciding upon the specific adults who are to contribute. Unfortunately there are in some communities adults to whom children should not be exposed deliberately. There are also community tensions, of which you might not be informed, that sometimes enter into the choices of persons. Then, too, there may be persons who have been ineffectual on previous occasions. In general, however, you will find in any community people who are able and willing to contribute richly to the education of your group.

Available Human Resources. Members of the community can make direct, personal contributions to the school program in a variety of ways. In a given school the specific contributions will depend upon the nature of the curriculum, the needs and interests of the children, and the special talents, avocations, occupations, and skills of available adults. To help sensitize you to the human resources that may be available in your school community, the following examples of the ways that people do help at school are offered:

1. *People may come to the school to share wide, general information with the children.*

David's neighbor had lived in China for many years. David had so enjoyed hearing about this far-away land from someone who had been there that he thought that the other eleven-year-olds should have the opportunity. One week, when China was much in the news, David's friend came to school to talk to the children and answer their questions.

Susan's great-grandmother had lived her entire life in the community and was especially familiar with its early history and legends. When the nine-year-olds were studying pioneer life, Susan arranged for the old lady to come to school to talk with her group. She told interesting true stories, read parts of old letters, and was able to give the children valuable information and feelings for reality that could not come to them in any other way.

Mr. Evans, a friend of the school principal, had unusual knowledge of wild life in the region. In science, the children were studying about how wild animals help men. Arrangements were made for Mr. Evans to talk to the group at school. He was able to give to the eight-year-olds information about animal life in the region which was not in their science books or reference materials.

2. People may come to school to give specific information which is needed.

Ellen's aunt, a registered nurse, worked in the local hospital. When the ten-year-olds were studying about health facilities in their town, she came to school to answer the children's questions about the work of nurses in the hospital.

Mr. Thomas' route as a mail carrier included the school. The seven-year-olds, studying community helpers, asked many questions about their mailman. When the teacher arranged for Mr. Thomas to come to the classroom to explain his work, he not only answered the children's questions but he also permitted them to put on his cap and try to carry the heavy mail pouch.

Jack's father, an architect, specialized in designing and building homes. When the eleven-year-olds were studying housing, he came to school to talk to the group and answer their questions about the part the architect plays in constructing a house. He explained how houses are drawn to scale, how blueprints are read, and how lumber is purchased.

3. People may come to school to exhibit and discuss interesting collections.

When the ten-year-olds were organizing special-interest groups, considerable curiosity about stamp collecting was evidenced. The student teacher arranged for a college friend to bring his stamps to school to share with the children, and to answer their questions about how they might start collections of their own.

Jean's father built model railroad trains as a hobby. One day he brought a number of his models to school to show to the six-year-olds. He told them the names of the different kinds of engines and explained the uses of different kinds of cars on his model freight and passenger trains.

The eleven-year-olds were studying about life in Mexico. Their teacher asked the owner of a small shop, specializing in Mexican handwork, to share some of the objects with the children. He arrived at school with a huge woven basket and a large map of Mexico. As he drew objects from the basket, he told where in Mexico the raw material is found and explained the process by which the handwork was created.

4. People may come to school to help children develop skills and learn processes.

Bill's father, a good baseball player, came to school to help the ten-year-olds with their batting. He showed them how to hold the bat, where to stand at the plate, and how to swing properly. The children particularly enjoyed watching Bill's father demonstrate how to hit the baseball.

The eight-year-olds were preparing some choral readings to present in an assembly program. A college friend of the student teacher, a speech major, came to help the children with their voice groupings, enunciation, and tonal effects.

Mrs. Sullivan, an acquaintance of the teacher, was an amateur expert in making marionettes. When the eleven-year-olds became interested in using this art form, the teacher was able to get her to come to school to show them how to string and manipulate their marionettes.

5. People may come to school primarily to entertain the children.

Barbara's mother, a musician, brought her violin to school and played for the six-year-olds.

Maria's neighbor was a librarian. Maria's mother was able to arrange for her to come to school one day to tell stories to the five-year-olds.

A friend of Paul's father, a ventriloquist, came to school to entertain the nine-year-olds.

6. People may come to school to contribute service.

Ann's father built a guinea-pig pen for the five-year-olds. He built it in the classroom so that the children could watch and help him.

Jake's father, an electrician, wired the seven-year-olds' grocery store so that they could have lights in it.

When the eleven-year-olds entertained the teachers at lunch, several mothers came to school to help with the preparations.

These illustrations no doubt suggest to you similar contributions by which you can effectively utilize the human resources of your school community. The fact that many examples are given is not meant to indicate that you should necessarily have parents or other adults working directly with your children at frequent intervals. In the first place, too many visits from participating adults can seriously upset the ongoing program rather than contribute constructively to it. In the second place, in order to make the most of each visit, there must be careful preparation and thoughtful follow-up experiences. Finally, the adult contributions of this type should come infrequently enough that each constitutes an occasion for children and thus may be fully appreciated.

Arranging for the Visitor. Your critic teacher may already have a file of information about adults who have potential contributions to make. If so, you can build on this information, adding names as you learn of occupations, talents, and interesting possessions. Otherwise, of course, you can begin to accumulate data on human resources and thus make a contribution to the school in which you are teaching. In building such a file, do not overlook the rich resources of your college community.

Children can often make the original contacts with adults who are coming to school to help the group. With rare exceptions, however, the teacher should talk with the contributor prior to the visit, verifying the date and time, and making final arrangements. These arrangements should include such considerations as the length of the presentation, the utilization of time, properties needed, desirable seating arrangements for the audience, and the rôle of the teacher and the children. At times, questions prepared by the group may be given to the visitor in advance. These will help him plan his presentation, adjust to the developmental level of the children, and effectively coordinate his contribution with the ongoing interests and purposes of the group.

The nature of the adult's contribution will largely determine the intensity of the preparation. Preparatory experiences will ordinarily include:

1. *Clarification of the purpose of the visit.* Children profit fully from a visit only when they are quite clear about its purpose. A large part of this clarification emerges from their participation in the decision to have the adult come. Sometimes special research activities may precede the visit. In any case, it is advisable shortly before the visit to devote time to review and further discussion of the reasons for the visit.

2. *Planning with children their rôles in receiving the visitor.* Children should have the opportunity for the social learnings involved in being hosts. They can share responsibility for meeting the visitor, bringing him to the classroom, caring for his wraps, helping with his equipment, introducing him to the group, and getting him started. Since these are learning experiences for children, they will need help in planning their rôles.

3. *Planning to be a receptive audience.* As is always necessary with novel situations at school, there must be discussion with children of appropriate behavior, and agreements made. How can we indicate that we are appreciating and understanding? When might we talk to each other? Should we applaud? There should be pre-planning for the handling of possible disruptions, such as messengers from other teachers, ventilation problems, and the like.

4. *Planning with children their rôles in helping the visitor.* Children sometimes participate directly in the presentation. They may help by handling equipment, by assisting with a demonstration, by following directions in learning a new process or skill, or by asking questions or sharing information at appropriate times. The group can consider, without rigid pre-planning, how to assume their active rôles during the visit, preparing to adapt to the situation as it emerges.

5. *Planning for the termination of the visit.* Social learnings are involved, also, in gracefully bringing the visit to a close. Certain children can be delegated to express orally appreciation for the group, to invite the visitor to stay longer to watch other school work, to return later for another visit.

While the visitor is at school, the teacher has, of course, responsibility for seeing that plans are carried out, for helping unobtrusively with necessary interpretations and adjustments, and for seeing that the visit is appropriately brought to a close.

Guiding Follow-up Experiences. Here again the activities following the visit will vary greatly in terms of the nature of the adult's contribution. Usually, however, there will be discussion devoted to general appraisal. The teacher will guide the children in considering the extent to which purposes were achieved and plans carried out. Particular emphasis should be directed toward appreciation of what the visitor did for the group, and the group's behavior as hosts. For some types of presentations, it will be wise to devote time to further understanding and interpretation of the experience.

One of the follow-up experiences might well be an additional expression of appreciation to the person who has helped the group. Usually a thank-you letter is quite appropriate. Sometimes examples of children's work may be sent as a means of showing how the visitor assisted the children. On occasion, weeks after the visit, the adult's contribution might be

reflected in a culminating activity or program. An invitation to such a program is additional evidence of real appreciation.

Whatever follow-up activities are utilized, they should be selected with a view to fostering good public relations. This includes the promotion of the community-school idea, helping parents and patrons understand the work of the teacher in a modern school and guiding children toward insight into the ways in which school-community living is intimately intermingled.

UTILIZING MATERIAL RESOURCES

The modern school utilizes the resources of the community not only through educational trips and the contributions of persons at school but also through the use at school of materials brought from the community. In the traditional school of the past, children were discouraged from bringing into the classroom materials extraneous to their "book" curriculum. The classical school boy trudged to school carrying his textbooks which had been used for his homework the previous evening. Adults who attended "book-centered" schools are amazed at the variety of objects that today's children take into the classroom. This is, of course, not accidental. Children are definitely encouraged to seek out appropriate materials in the home, neighborhood, and larger community for use in the school. Modern teachers know that a good program for young children is built upon concrete experience. They know that concrete materials from the community bring reality to curriculum experiences. They know, too, that children experience valuable learning in the process of obtaining these materials.

Values in Using Materials from the Community. The general purposes guiding the utilization of resources of the community in the school program have been discussed. Educational trips, the contributions of adults in the classroom, and the use of materials from the community are all directed toward achieving these broad aims. In addition, however, the use of material resources in the classroom contribute somewhat uniquely in the following ways:

1. Reality is brought to classroom experiences as children see, feel, taste, touch, and smell objects from the community.
2. Information gained from reading and listening is verified and supplemented by close and continued contact with the concrete.
3. Children discover through classroom use significant relationships between, gain further understanding of, and attach deeper meaning to materials that they use or contact directly in their out-of-school living.
4. Children learn how to identify, seek out, and contribute appropriate materials.
5. Children gain further appreciation of the value of materials and learn how to take care of them.

6. Children learn to communicate more effectively through skillfully exhibiting and thoughtfully interpreting objects.
7. Children reveal through the objects they bring to school their real interests and values.
8. Progress of children can be partially appraised through their choices of materials and success with seeking them out.
9. Parents, as they help their children secure objects of importance, become more closely identified with, and understanding of, the work of the school.
10. Teachers have further means of knowing parents and the home and community situations in which children live.

Securing Materials. The teacher, children, parents or other interested adults may bring materials from the community into the classroom. The student teacher often has access to a fresh source of materials and is therefore in a position to contribute richly. He also has available for use with the children the concrete materials which the school system provides as part of the general supplies. Then, too, in some schools, collections of objects from various sources are accumulated from year to year in a materials laboratory. While it is convenient and efficient to have a rich store of concrete objects on hand in the school, there is real danger that the direct contributions of children might thereby be minimized. Values potentially inherent in the utilization of material resources reside not only in the actual use of them in the classroom but also in the children's experiences in seeking them out and making them available to their peers. A group, for example, may enjoy and profit from a collection of shells that are the property of the school. But how much richer the experience when a child has collected them himself. And how much more meaningful for the group when one of their members can share both the objects and his direct experience in securing them.

Stimulation and encouragement for children to bring materials to school should be definitely provided as an aspect of planning. There is need for frequent discussion of the types of objects that will be valued as real contributions. There should be consideration of specific materials useful in the broad unit or other ongoing curriculum work. Children should be encouraged, also, to bring materials of special informational interest and importance even when they have no close relationship to current school work. Children should know that their prized possessions are acceptable sharing material. They should know that aesthetic productions that have given them pleasure will be welcomed. As you guide children in deciding about the appropriateness of materials, you will want to keep in mind that, while planning through discussion does help, the actual use made of their contributions will be the more powerful motivating factor.

Parents' contributions are usually most effectively made through their children. Even though the object is secured by the parents, the child

gains satisfaction from bringing it to school. In this way, the child feels that he has a large share in the contribution. On occasion, however, it is best that the parent come to school. One mother thought it advisable to come in person to help her young son share the baby goats. The teacher has a guidance function here in helping both the child and his parents know when the child should not assume the responsibility alone.

Guides for Using the Materials. The fact that in a good school children are continuously bringing objects into the classroom constitutes a challenge to the teacher. He not only encourages and stimulates the flow of materials but he provides that they are wisely used and thoughtfully protected. The following suggestions are made to help you meet this challenge:

1. *See that each child's contribution is promptly recognized.* When the young child brings an object to the classroom that he thinks is important, he wants and needs recognition that is not long deferred. Many modern teachers arrange for a sharing period early in the school day when the materials that have been brought can be seen by the group. The teacher accepts responsibility for seeing that appropriate recognition is given to each contributor. The children usually will comment with genuine appreciation. On occasion, for the good of a certain child, the teacher will find it necessary to say "That is just what we needed, Susan," or "We are so happy that you brought your collection, Earl!"

When a child's contribution is not helpful, tact is needed to convey appreciation of the effort and intent without encouraging more of the same type of material. This is usually handled most effectively through general discussion, following the sharing, in which further emphasis is given to the kind of materials that make good contributions.

On rare "red letter" days, so many objects will appear that time will not be available for adequately sharing them all. This situation can sometimes be met by providing that some of the children merely show what they have brought with the understanding that later in the day, or the following day, they will have an opportunity to share more fully.

2. *Arrange for effective sharing of the materials.* Quite understandably children want to see what is being shared without undue waiting. When a few children crowd close to the contributor or the object, blocking the view of others, the learning situation is ineffective and the makings of a discipline problem exist. Ordinarily, the first showing of new materials goes on most effectively when the children have formed a circle in which each can see the others and the objects they have to share. Sometimes the object being shared can be placed in the center of the circle, either on the floor or on a low table. The children, of course, should keep their places in the circle until the teacher works out a plan for them to take turns examining at close range.

The handling and close examination of small objects by each child should usually be deferred until near the end of sharing time or until a number of objects can be passed around simultaneously. A child presenting his contribution should have the attention of all of the children—a condition not achieved if various objects are attracting attention at the same time.

3. *Decide as to the appropriateness of materials for further use.* Despite frequent discussion of the kinds of materials appropriate for sharing, as well

as continuous indirect appraisal of objects brought, children will occasionally make contributions that are questionable from the standpoint of educational value or good taste. While rarely will it be necessary to prevent the child from sharing in some way what he has brought, the teacher must make judgments as to the use of the undesirable materials. He will, at times, find it advisable to see that the child takes his contribution home at the first opportunity. Whenever a child becomes conscious of having made an inappropriate contribution, special care should be taken to give him realistic, specific suggestions of what he might bring the next time.

4. *Provide for effective further use of the materials.* Whether or not materials from the community are fully utilized to enrich the curriculum depends largely upon the insightful guidance of the teacher. In addition to stimulating the flow of materials into the school, he provides that children make full use of these resources. Some of the things that children bring to school have little educational value for use beyond the regularly scheduled sharing time. Others have rich potentialities for vital learnings in the daily life of the school. The teacher helps the group understand and appreciate the special importance of these contributions. He helps them see the relationships between these materials and ongoing curriculum work. He uses certain of these materials with the entire group at appropriate times. He arranges that individuals or committees have access to the materials as they need them. Since some of the contributions will be at the school for a limited period only, he provides adequate time for their use while they are still available. As he guides children in the use of these representations of the community, the teacher is continually alert in helping children appreciate the reality that they bring to the classroom, in helping them see significant relationships between their vicarious learnings and the direct learning afforded through these materials.

5. *Provide for proper care of the materials.* Although children will not be encouraged to bring to school very valuable or fragile objects, many of the things that they share will be of real or sentimental value. The teacher can help children in the proper care of such materials by seeing that safe and appropriate lockers, shelves, cases, or drawers are available for temporary storage. He can see that materials are sensibly handled; possibly that certain materials are not handled at all. He can see that materials are exhibited in such a way that they will not be damaged. He can arrange that particular materials remain at school for a short time only. All children should feel responsibility for the care of materials that are brought to them. At times particular children will accept specific responsibilities such as caring for plants and animals.

6. *See that borrowed materials are returned on time.* Children sometimes borrow from parents or friends the things that they bring to school. They should learn that borrowing is accompanied by agreements as to the time the object should be returned. Thus, when children contribute, they can also report how long the materials may be used at school. The teacher will want to share responsibility with the children for seeing that the borrowed materials are returned on time. On occasion, with the early-elementary child, the teacher may think it advisable to talk with the parent on the telephone to be sure there is no misunderstanding.

7. *Use materials to guide children toward increasingly mature judgment in selection.* The teacher continually faces the challenge of helping children grow

in the ability to bring to school materials that are not only personally satisfying but also make real contributions to the group. While the teacher always recognizes the significance of current contributions, he is also alert to possible next steps in raising standards of selection. In working toward this goal he deliberately uses materials that have been brought by children. He gives praise to the child who demonstrates more mature judgment in presenting to the group particularly useful and valued objects. He sees that the children appreciate such contributions and are thus helped to raise their own standards of selection.

As teachers guide the utilization of community resources through educational trips, through the contributions of adults at school, and through materials from the community, they must keep in mind the reactions of persons outside the school who become involved. Parents and patrons of modern schools usually cooperate fully and generously when they are convinced that through their efforts the living-learning of children is improved. It follows that teachers should be practical, realistic, and considerate in providing that community experiences fostered by the school are important to the wholesome development of children. Furthermore, teachers must help the adult members of the community understand that a good school of necessity must make wide use of the community as a laboratory for learning.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

During your student teaching you want to make the most of your opportunities to use with children the community as a laboratory of learning. The following criteria may be helpful to you in realistically examining what you have been doing in relation to this important phase of your preparation for teaching.

1. Planning for the Use of Community Resources:

What do you understand to be the specific purposes for using the resources of the community in the program of the elementary school? To what extent and in what ways has your school been using the resources of the community through educational trips? Through adults contributing at school? Through materials brought from the community? What steps have you taken to acquaint yourself with available learning resources in your school community?

2. Guiding Educational Trips:

What specific differences do you recognize between the walking trip and the extensively organized trip in relation to purposes? Arrangements and plans? The trip itself? The follow-up experiences? In what respects have your walking trips been successful? Where do you need further to improve your guidance of these experiences? How have your extensively organized trips contributed to the ongoing curriculum work? In what specific ways do you expect to make your next trip even more successful?

3. *Utilizing Human Resources:*

What important contributions are people from the community making directly to the school experiences of your group? What specifically have you learned about planning with children for making the most of a person as a resource? What social learnings of value have come to your children through the visits of adults? What evidence can you present that adults who have come to school to contribute to the work of your group have felt their help was appreciated? What evidence do you have that these adults are gaining respect for, and further understanding of, the work of the school through such experiences?

4. *Utilizing Material Resources:*

What procedures have proved most effective for you in encouraging and stimulating children to bring desirable materials to school? What evidence can you cite of children's growth in ability to search out useful and pertinent materials? What have you learned about helping children make full use of these materials? In what ways can you become even more effective in securing and utilizing in the classroom the material resources of the community?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. At the beginning of this chapter the following statement is made: "The elementary school which is not utilizing directly and continuously the resources of the community is not playing a major rôle in the education of children." What does this statement mean to you? Do you accept it as it stands? Would you modify it? If so, how would you rewrite it?
2. Suppose that you were meeting with a group of parents whose children had not had experiences with educational trips at school. In talking with the group about trips which you expect to take, what purposes would you emphasize most strongly?
3. One teacher said, "Extensive planning of educational trips with children robs them of the thrills of adventure and discovery." To what extent do you agree with this teacher?
4. It has been said that it is sometimes more suitable to have a person come to the school to contribute than to take the children into the community. Describe situations in which you think this might be true. Can you support this generalization with anecdotes from your own student-teaching experience?
5. In what specific ways can materials that children bring from the community enrich the learning experiences of a broad unit of work? Of a specific skill?
6. "A walking trip in our community! What is there to see?" said the principal. Is this statement justifiable in some school communities?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Large Was Our Bounty* (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1948).

This entire book will be valuable to you for further insight into the immense problem of the schools and natural resources. Chapter V, "What Are Schools Now

Doing?" contains illustrations and explanations of what many schools are doing in using the natural resources available to them.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning* (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1947).

This volume will be helpful to you in many aspects of your teaching. In connection with using community resources, Chapter III, "Toward Community Planning," is worth your time. Emphasis is given to how the school can serve the community as well as to how the resources of the community vitalize the living and learning of children at school.

HANNA, Paul R., *Youth Serves the Community* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1936).

This book is one of the most extensive studies ever reported of the contributions that school children make to the improvement of the community. While the entire book is helpful, the Introduction and Chapter I are particularly recommended for a discussion of the purposes of community service from an educational point of view.

HOCKETT, John A. and JACOBSEN, E. W., *Modern Practices in the Elementary School* (Boston, Ginn and Company, 1933).

"Making the Most of the Environment," Chapter V of this readable book, presents a practical discussion of uses of community resources in the elementary school.

HORN, Ernest, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies* (Chicago, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937).

While this book was written some time ago, it is modern in its point of view and contains practical suggestions for the student teacher. Chapter X, "Sources of Concrete Experience," will prove well worth the time you spend on it.

LANE, Robert H., *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School* (New York, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941).

"Social Living in the Classroom and Elsewhere," Chapter V, includes examples of educational trips at various levels.

National Council for the Social Studies, *The Social Studies in the Elementary School, Twelfth Yearbook* (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1941).

Much of this volume relates closely to the use in the school curriculum of the resources of the community. Chapter V, "An Experiencing Curriculum in the Social Studies," is especially recommended.

National Council for the Social Studies, *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies, Ninth Yearbook* (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1938).

Through this extensive study you will have an opportunity to gain insight into the use of the community at all levels of the public school.

WOFFORD, Kare, *Teaching in Small Schools* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1946).

You will find many practical suggestions and illustrations in this book. Chapter XIV, "Taking Excursions," is particularly pertinent to the use of community resources.

CHAPTER XII

Working in the Whole School

Your work as a student teacher focuses primarily upon the classroom group but, as you may have discovered already, many aspects of your classroom work relate to the life of the whole school. Activities originating in classrooms, such as choral work, hobby clubs, and home-room teams, must be considered and provided for in the program of the whole school. A number of teacher responsibilities for school functions cut across grade levels and home-room groups. Typical of these responsibilities are the direction of school assembly programs, supervision of playgrounds, and sponsorship of children's organizations. Modern teachers look beyond classroom walls to give children experiences in whole-school activities.

You have already recognized that the purpose of the modern elementary school is much broader than academic instruction in facts and skills. The increasing demand that the school contribute to the development of balanced personality, good citizenship, and worth-while recreational interests has resulted in the creation of many curricular provisions for specialized purposes, such as self-government, auditorium programs, special-interest clubs, and intra-mural athletics. The increasing recognition that the best preparation for life is child life itself—with all its varied inter-group activities and relationships—is indicated by the changing terminology used to designate such activities. When the chief purpose of elementary schools was the "skills and drills," all other phases of the whole-school program were termed "extra-curricular." The widening concern for all aspects of child development is shown by increasing use in professional literature of such terms as "Co-curricular activities," "Special activities," "All-school activities," and "Citizenship program."

Concentration upon classroom work sometimes limits the student teacher's perspective on the whole-school program and his relations to it. Of the great variety of educative experiences and organizations which the modern elementary school sponsors in enriching the instructional program of the whole school, those in which the student teacher is most likely to participate are assembly programs, publications, school government, recreation, service clubs, and parent groups. Each of these aspects of the school program will be discussed in the following sections of the chapter, including suggestions to guide your own work.

SCHOOL ASSEMBLY PROGRAMS

In the elementary school the assembly has evolved from a rather drab and stilted "opening exercise" into a challenging educational experience. Some authorities now claim that the well-managed assembly is one of the greatest educative factors in the elementary-school program. Among the many values of assembly programs the following may be considered the most important: to enrich and vitalize classroom work; to build school morale; to promote poise and effectiveness in communication; to develop good audience habits; to broaden children's interests and understandings; to provide opportunities for the expression of individual abilities and skills; and to contribute sheer joy to school living.

Assembly programs may involve all children in the school, the early-elementary or the later-elementary children, or two home-room groups. They may be regularly scheduled, with topics, dates, and sources of programs set up for a semester or year, or they may be arranged to meet emerging needs and changing conditions. Assembly programs may be used as formal auditorium periods for administrative announcements or direct instruction, for informal instruction, for entertainment, or for sharing with larger groups the work of one class or special-interest group.

Your professional preparation and your consideration of the major values of assembly programs enable you to determine which types of assembly are most desirable and justifiable. Your experience with the whole school program of the building in which you are working will indicate the type of assembly which is being emphasized. By working toward the major educational values through the present practices of the school, you will be able to make real contributions to the assembly program and to your own growth as a teacher.

Regularly Scheduled Assemblies. Increasing numbers of elementary schools, recognizing the educational significance of assemblies, are dignifying them by providing adequate time and by establishing assembly schedules for the full school year. Advance scheduling enables the children to share the opportunities and responsibilities and to more efficiently plan, prepare, and carry out the various parts of the programs. A major advantage of regular scheduling is the opportunity afforded classroom groups to develop assembly programs out of their class enterprises. Such scheduling, however, does not eliminate or discourage volunteer programs, special assemblies, or home-room programs.

Whether the schedule has been arranged by the principal in consultation with the staff, by a committee of teachers, or by a joint committee of principal, teachers, and children, it will be posted on the official bulletin board and probably in your room. The assembly schedule may look much like the following sample:

TENTATIVE ASSEMBLY SCHEDULE

Friday Mornings, 9:30-10:15

Sept. 16—Preventing Fires in the Fall	—Grade 6
Sept. 23—Our Summer Fun	—Grade 2
Sept. 30—Enjoying the County Fair	—Mrs. Williams
Oct. 7—The Safety Patrol at Work	—Boys and Girls of the Patrol Club
Oct. 14—To Be Announced	—Grade 5
Oct. 21—Songs We Like to Sing	—All Grades
Miss Smith, Leader	
Oct. 30—Hallowe'en Play	—Grade 3
Nov. 6—Our Nature Collections	—All Grades
Nov. 13—Books We Enjoy	—Grade 4
Nov. 20—Fair Play	—Team Captains, Grades 4, 5, 6.

All the children should go to every all-school assembly. Assemblies should appeal to all the children, both the audience and those presenting the program, since they are designed primarily as socializing influences and for promoting mutual understanding and appreciation. When auditorium facilities are inadequate, it is sometimes necessary to separate the children into several groups. In these cases, the contributing group repeats its program.

In preparing your program you need to keep in mind the size and age of the audience. Do not make the mistake of trying to get your group, if they are older children, to "talk down" to the younger children in the audience, or worry that the older children may be an unsympathetic audience for your very young group. If the program develops from the purposes and activities of the children giving it, if they have entered into its planning, are relaxed and enjoy presenting it, the children in the audience will be sympathetically responsive.

There are several ways in which you may help your group be an effective audience. Time should be provided immediately before going to the assembly to help children get into the spirit of the program which is to follow. In helping children become a more effective audience, you may guide the pre-assembly discussion with provocative questions:

1. *Review standards of assembly behavior.* "When should we talk to our neighbors?" "Why is loud talking undesirable?" "When should we applaud?" "How should we applaud?" "How should we find and take our seats?"
2. *Build background for the program to be presented.* "What do you think the program will be about?" "Why is this program being given now?" "Why are fires more easily started in the fall?" "What do we already know about fires?"
3. *Prepare the group for intelligent listening and audience participation.* "What do you think they may tell us about preventing fires?" "How might the group present its program?"

upon the content of the program and ways of presenting it. In some cases preparation of the program may be included as a related phase of the broad unit or introduced into subject correlations. In subject-centered schools it is possible to utilize the program preparation to vitalize and motivate regular work: measuring the stage for scenery; writing the script; editing and rewriting parts to be read or spoken; reading widely for selection of material. Time will be required for preparing programs. Rather than modify all parts of the day, it is usually better to take one portion of the daily schedule for preparation—perhaps the free-choice period, the art period, or language-arts time. This keeps at a minimum the disruptions caused by program preparation.

Regardless of the type of curriculum in your school, you will make every effort to see that energy, time, and materials spent in preparation for the program are not wasted educationally. Ideally, when room groups accept responsibility for special-day programs, the contribution should grow out of on-going school experiences. For example, a program for Arbor Day would very easily develop from the accumulated science learnings of the various room groups. In that way the preparation would be a regular part of the work of your group. The presentation of the program, being simply an additional aspect of the culminating activities of their broad unit, a reorganization of learnings from the correlation of two or more subjects, or a report related to topics studied in geography class, would serve to accentuate the on-going quality of the children's work.

Programs within Home Rooms. The possibilities for programs within the home room are almost limitless. However, for general discussion, they may be designated as of three kinds: small groups within the room presenting a program for their classmates; special-interest groups sharing some aspect of their work; the entire room-group presenting a program for another room group. Each of these kinds of home-room programs may affect your work in the whole school. It may be necessary or advisable to change schedules, adjust appointments, or secure the coöperation or participation of other staff members.

The home-room program is less demanding than one prepared for presentation before the entire school. Informality is one of its greatest values. It furnishes more frequent opportunity for children to participate in giving programs and experiencing audience relationships. The friendly atmosphere of the peer group encourages freedom of self-expression. Play-lets, skits, or dramatic readings, presented for an intimate room group, provide good preparation for taking part in larger programs. Other values of home-room programs of all three kinds include the friendly exchange of suggestions and criticisms, increased mutual appreciation by children of their abilities, and the opportunities for spontaneous, impromptu sharing of simple programs growing out of classroom work.

Important learnings are potentially inherent in preparing and presenting programs in the room. There are possibilities for vitalizing sharing experiences. For example, from the language-arts work of older children may come dramatizations of episodes from favorite books, interpretative oral readings, radio skits, original stories. For younger children, acting out a simple story they have read or which has been read to them, informal dramatizations of "here-and-now" experiences, or playing one group of instruments from the rhythm band may be appropriate at certain times. Presenting programs to each other within their home room provides an excellent opportunity for children to improve their audience behavior. The small size of the audience enables you to interrupt the program informally, without creating a scene, to discuss inappropriate behavior as it occurs. Encouraging the shy child to enter programs, while tactfully restraining the aggressive one, will enable you to provide for every child to share in presenting programs from time to time.

Questions of what is of interest to the other children in the room, what is worthwhile, and the extent of preparation necessary will arise. The children's interest in making their presentation effective will bring questions of costuming and staging. In general, your most satisfactory approach to these considerations is that, in these informal, more intimate situations, only very simple properties are necessary. A cleared space at the end of the room will serve as a stage, a single feather pinned behind a collar can make an Indian, a board or chair laid flat may serve as a ship. In helping young children prepare programs for their room group, you may work first with the group as a whole, agreeing upon the central idea, organizing suggestions, and selecting characters. What few rehearsals there are may take place during free-choice periods or when the other children are working at their seats. Frequently, in the lower grades, no rehearsal is necessary or desirable. The entire group works out the idea, suggests characters and lines, and enjoys observing their program develop. With older children you may work much as you do with committees preparing reports except that setting up the program provides greater recognition of the dramatic quality of the experience.

Programs presented by special-interest groups are likely to arise from interests or hobbies held in common by a few children. One of your problems may be to avoid over-emphasis or unwarranted recognition of these groups, to the neglect of other children. For example, your group of older children may include a girls' trio, a harmonica sextet, or a group of skillful whittlers. Special interests of children at the early-elementary level may include modeling familiar animals, putting together model airplanes, and collecting dolls, miniatures, or stones. You will wish to encourage special interests and recognize unique abilities of children by providing time for the various groups to present simple programs to the other chil-

dren in the room. Interspersed between such presentations, opportunities should be provided for other children, lacking such special accomplishments, to prepare and present programs. Your chief problem may be to help these children identify and improve their unique abilities or develop special interests. It is not necessary, of course, for the contributions of special-interest groups to relate directly to the classroom work. Such interesting diversions are relaxing and educative for the whole group. However, you will need to use judgment about the repetition of particular programs. A first program is welcome because the group wishes to share and their fellows are interested in the group's special interest and accomplishments. Additional programs from the same group may be given because they contribute to ongoing work or because of the special request of most of the children. Usually, programs of this type should be relatively brief.

When children have gained significant learnings and satisfactions from a particular experience, they frequently wish to share it with others. The consideration of what is appropriate for such sharing is one with which you can help the children. Dramatization of the story of Little Red Hen or of the episode of Jim Hawkins in the apple barrel might be suitable for sharing with another room. Drawings of what was seen at the park or reports on forms of early transportation might be equally effective. Exhibits of handwork, displays of collections, and the results of science experiments such as comparing milk-fed chickens with those drinking only water are often more suitable than reading written reports or giving recitations. Other problems to be met include: deciding what other grade or room group would be interested, extending the invitation, agreeing upon a mutually satisfactory time for the program, and arranging for seating.

While you must not thrust children into an audience situation before the participators are ready, the preparatory efforts should be kept within reasonable bounds. Moreover, it requires judgment on your part to utilize only appropriate times for getting the children ready. It is also worth thoughtful planning of what is to go on during preparation for a program, so that some children are not at loose ends or wandering aimlessly around while others are making final arrangements.

Programs for Parents. Children's programs for parents usually should be organized within home-rooms. Justifiable purposes of such programs are:

1. To interpret the work of the school
2. To share children's learnings with their parents
3. To provide opportunities for parents to observe the social development of their children
4. To help parents appreciate the efforts involved in guiding and teaching their children

5. To furnish a setting in which parents may gain better perspective of their children's relative abilities and achievements
6. To create an interest in the all-around development of their children
7. To provide opportunity for parents to become better acquainted with each other and with the teacher.

These purposes are more readily achieved in home-room programs than in all-school assemblies. The home-room parents are a small and potentially intimate and cohesive group. They have the common interest of having their children in the same room-group with the same teacher; they feel themselves part of that group. Parents who participate as audiences for home-room programs gain a greater appreciation of the atmosphere in which their children live at school and a greater feeling of belongingness in their children's educational ventures.

Occasionally the mistake is made of developing the overly elaborate, artificial, or stereotyped program with sweet or preachy selections, highly technical presentations, or meaningless agglomerations of recitals, skits, and songs. Unfortunately, these occasions are sometimes used as opportunities to indoctrinate or obviously instruct parents. It is a dim-witted parent indeed who cannot see that his child is being used, and many parents resent this as exploitation. Even more prevalent is the tendency to strain artificially to develop highly entertaining programs for parents. Sometimes, in order to impress parents, teachers attempt to produce programs beyond the comprehension of the children. Usually, the greater the efforts in any of these directions the more dismal the failure. Parents want and need to know what the school is doing in its regular work, how the children are going about the business of living, learning, and playing together at school. Children can best convey this evidence when they are naturally and comfortably sharing materials which are meaningful to them.

The programs should be centered about topics on which children are working. Suitable programs may be developed as:

1. *Culminating activities of a broad unit of work.* The children may arrange displays of their work, such as charts, pictures, models; give demonstrations of processes; present reports of their research and findings.

2. *Dramatizations of a favorite story or original idea.* The children may present their versions of stories read; adapt scenes from various books; develop original plots. These might be presented as a series of informal, unmemorized dramatizations; productions of plays written by the children; interpretative oral reading.

3. *Sharing of the creative work of children.* Representative selections of written creations may be offered by the children, including poems, short stories, descriptive sketches, and informal essays. Other forms of creative work which may be shared are: roller-box movies, puppet shows, interpretations of murals, friezes, and pictures, explanations of clay figures, original rhythms and dances.

4. *Presentations of accomplishments in special areas of the curriculum.* The children as a whole group, or as several smaller groups, may organize and present physical-education activities such as folk-dances, stunts, singing or group games; songs and instrumental selections from music; demonstrations and experiments from science; materials illustrating mathematical concepts.

5. *Evaluations of important accomplishments.* In this type of program the children share their evaluations of their school work over a given period of time, a month, six-weeks period, semester, or year. The children review their purposes, present evidence of improvements and accomplishments, and share conclusions from their appraisals. To do this, they might use samples of written expression; handwriting; records of reading or physical development; examples of creative work; experience reading charts; anecdotal appraisals of group behavior; and the like.

6. *Celebrations of special occasions.* Occasionally, on special days, the children may invite their parents to celebrate with them. Arbor Day may be observed through utilizing the children's experiences in nature study and science. For Hallowe'en, community folk-lore and traditional customs may furnish the basis for a series of playlets. For Lincoln's Birthday, anecdotes about his youth, literary selections, and biographical sketches might be presented. Parents' visiting day, Mother's Day, and Father's Day may be suitably recognized through programs which emphasize appreciations and understanding of what Mother and Father contribute to the children and to the school.

With some guidance from the teacher, the judgment of the children can usually be trusted in selecting, organizing, and presenting material in programs for their parents. The artificiality, sham, and stage fright sometimes associated with these programs result from the teacher's feeling of pressure to "put on a good show."

It is unwise to undertake all-school assemblies for parents at frequent intervals during the year. One such program for the year or one each semester should be sufficient. In some schools Christmas is an appropriate time. Too much emphasis on complicated scenery, elaborate pageantry, and abstract religious concepts should be avoided. Toward the end of the year, programs may be used to show the children's experiences and accomplishments. A strong reason for reducing the number of all-school programs for parents is the difficulty of providing for many children to take part. Each parent comes primarily to see his child's contribution, not to see a few champions perform. In home-room programs it is possible to provide that every child has a respectable part.

Your Preparation for Programs. In preparing for a program, the purposes, needs, and interests of the children are considered in relation to the occasion. Furthermore, the educational and cultural level of the community should be considered in choosing the kind of program and in selecting the form of presentation. Planning periods are devoted to preliminary exploration of ideas and resources. In the later-elementary grades, com-

mittees may be set up to secure needed information, investigate possibilities, work out special parts of the program, and secure or make needed properties. In the early-elementary grades, the teacher will more directly coordinate the children's preparation.

As preparations for the program progress, you are suggesting, guiding, encouraging, and helping: "Would the step-ladder serve as a mast for the look-out to climb?" "Have you thought of using papier-mâché models rather than drawing pictures?" "That display is taking shape splendidly, John!" "I'll hold the paper, Ann, while you pin it." You are carefully observing the children's use of information, materials, and resources: "Are you sure that the propellor was invented by an Englishman?" "Who was he?" "How may these railroad posters help?" "Are you certain that Mr. Williams has agreed to talk about locomotives in our program for the fourth grade?" You point out difficulties and alternatives, recall agreed-upon purposes, arrange for needed rehearsals, and provide for pre-program evaluation.

One of your major responsibilities is keeping these activities in proportion to other aspects of the daily schedule of school living. As far as possible, the children's normal learnings should proceed. At times, however, it may be necessary to give over the greater part of several days to final preparation for a special program. You need to be realistic about children's needs. The program is not important enough to neglect play periods, rest time, toilet needs, or mid-morning lunch. Nor should perfection in presentation be prized above consideration of the health needs of children in terms of fatigue, nervous tension, and undue worry or fear. Those children not having speaking parts, if it is impossible to include all, need your attention and help in feeling wanted, in having important responsibilities in preparing the program, and in having their contributions recognized. Every child should feel that it is "our program."

In planning and carrying through a program, the beginning and ending are especially important. Children should learn to prepare programs that have easy, natural beginnings; that avoid a dead-level sameness; that work through, without trailing off, to a definite, satisfying ending. Occasionally, with young children, you may introduce the program yourself, welcoming the parents, giving a brief over-view of what the children and you have been doing together at school, and explaining the types of work the children plan to share. *The program may end very naturally with a few summarizing remarks by one of the children.* These remarks might include a re-statement of what they had intended to do, and an expression of appreciation to the visitors for coming. *Trite verses, cute speeches, or monotonous all-voice statements in unison are not fitting endings.* With your guidance, older children can plan and carry through an interesting, effective, and dramatic beginning and conclusion.

The following guides may be helpful in avoiding pitfalls as you work to prepare a program for an assembly, a home-room group, or parents. The program should:

1. Reflect the educational emphasis of the school.
2. Be educational as well as entertaining.
3. Use the accomplishments and ideas of the children.
4. Represent the work of the children.
5. Interpret the abilities and interests of the children.
6. Include those children who need the experience.
7. Avoid "typing" individual children in certain rôles.
8. Be held within reasonable time limits for the maturity of the children.
9. Be free from unwholesome pressure.
10. Avoid extensive rote memorization, in favor of informal choice of words.
11. Avoid elaborate preparation.
12. Be carefully appraised before and after presentation.
13. Contribute to the educational development and social maturity of the children.

Above all, the program should be childlike, warm and friendly in feeling, natural in communication, unhurried in presentation, and developed in the expectation of a sympathetic audience.

SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS

Modern elementary schools utilize several kinds of publications to foster children's interests in creative writing, to contribute to school morale, and to stimulate public interest in the development of children's abilities in writing. Some schools use school or room newspapers; others favor the literary magazine, or pamphlets and booklets. These publications are appropriately inexpensive, informal, and child-like, simple in format and design, and genuinely representative of children's own work. Such school publications frequently give the student teacher stimulating experiences in working with children in the whole school program and, with little added burden, give him insight into how publication policies and procedures are practically handled in an elementary school.

Guiding Principles for School Publications. You are, of course, concerned that your efforts be well-spent in your work with the publications of the school. Doing individual jobs in a piecemeal fashion may "get out the paper" and thus meet the responsibility of the moment, but contribute little to your understanding of the educational possibilities of the school paper or magazine. The effectiveness of school publications as educative instruments depends in large measure upon the purposes they are expected to achieve. Full realization of their constructive influence results from consistent application of sound educational principles. For the production

of school publications, here are some guides that may prove helpful. The publications of a modern elementary school should:

1. Provide outlet for children's creative writing.
2. Be honestly representative of the children's work in content and production.
3. Provide recognition for children's efforts and accomplishments.
4. Help children establish and raise their own standards of written expression.
5. Provide experiences in conservation of materials and efficiency of production.
6. Interpret and disseminate news of school activities.
7. Contribute to the coordination of the varied activities of the school.
8. Interpret indirectly the educational program of the school to the children, staff, and supporting community.
9. Be read in school by the children.
10. Arouse children's interests and solicit their cooperation in relation to specific school problems.
11. Be realistic in total size and in length of individual contributions.
12. Be free or inexpensive in cost.
13. Be attractive in appearance, neat, and legible.
14. Give recognition for individual and group contributions.
15. Avoid rivalry and unrealistic standards of journalistic perfection.
16. Be supervised by a responsible staff member.

It is hardly necessary to say that you will need to shape your activities so that these principles continually operate. Whether conferring with a child on a poem he is writing, working on the room news in language-arts period, or assisting the sponsor examine page-proof, you will sensitively recognize children's efforts. "This shows that you have been working on the idea, Tony." You will carry these principles into your work with arithmetic and science, as well as the arts, so that interesting experiences in those branches may be reflected in the publication. "Sally, your illustration of what fractions mean is a fine idea to offer for the school paper." You will utilize the influence of the school paper to further children's interests and raise their standards. "Is our trip to the housing project news that should be shared with others?"

Time must be provided for producing and using school publications. In reference to a school newspaper, for example, this means the planning of a time for the children to collect news, to edit their room news, to read their papers when they receive them. Plans must also be made for lively discussions of the editorials and of significant, controversial, or surprising news items, for the enjoyment of poems and essays, and for laughter over the joke column.

Direct Responsibility for All-school Publications. You may have a major responsibility for the school publication if you are doing student-teaching in a self-contained classroom where the school paper is produced, in a

building having an all-school publications staff of which your critic teacher is sponsor, in a home-room which alternates with other home-rooms in producing successive issues. The general plan of publication, including sponsorship, frequency of issue, title, size, financing, and production details, will have been established by the regular staff. Your contribution lies chiefly in understanding and adjusting to that plan and following the guiding principles in helping achieve the purposes the staff has accepted. In some cases it may be possible that the student teacher's fresh viewpoint may result in the discovery of additional ways of utilizing the educational opportunities of the publication.

When your home-room has the major responsibility, your critic teacher has probably already established a staff. If not, or if new staff members put out each issue, you may help the children agree upon the duties and responsibilities of the various positions such as editor, assistant editors for various departments or sections, business manager, reporters, copy readers, printers, and so on. You will guide children in the election of staff members on the basis of reliability and sincerity rather than primarily upon academic ability or literary talent. Problems of developing a balanced content include consideration of the relative emphasis upon editorials, literary contributions, cartoons and sketches, home-room news, sports, personal items, club activities, and humor. Material may be collected by cooperation of your staff with reporters from other home-rooms or school organizations. A good plan is for each home-room to participate by having its own reporters collect and edit its contributions.

Appropriate recognition of contributions must be considered. To arouse and hold interest in the publication, as well as to utilize its motivating influences, many teachers follow the policy of using as many children's names as possible. To do this, everything is signed: editorials, news notes, literary offerings, club reports, even jokes. A goal of every child's name in the paper at least once a year is a worthy one and, unless the school is very large indeed, may be achieved without descending to a level of mere gossip, without sacrificing journalistic quality, and without encouraging competitive publicity-seeking among the children. It is of continuing importance to emphasize "our group" and to highlight the work and contributions of the children as social groups. Reports of club work, home-room studies, experiments, trips, and even editorials and essays may carry group signatures such as "Patrol Club," "Third Grade," "A Group of School Citizens." You can guide the editorial staff in balancing content between signed individual contributions and group productions.

Editorial responsibilities constitute another aspect of publication needing attention. The editor and his assistants decide the proportionate space to be allotted each section. They then select and edit available materials and arrange the content according to the number of pages, columns,

or lines available. The children must consider the placement of items for appearance as well as function, the arrangement of cartoons and drawings, and decorative touches. In school publications readability is especially important. Headings must be concrete and simple rather than sophisticated and subtle. News items must express ideas in a clear, understandable style in brief space with emphasis on sharing information. Above all, the material should be appropriate for the wide range of abilities of young readers.

The staff will also need guidance concerning production details. Such details include securing supplies, making up master copies, printing and assembling, distributing, and keeping financial records. The total amount of paper, stencils or duplicator sheets, ink, staples, and other supplies must be computed. The preparation of clear copy with even margins on both sides of columns, the use of a stylus for drawings, plastic lettering guides for headlines, and particularly the use of any kind of duplicating machine require neat, correct work. Assembling and distributing afford opportunities for all children to participate. Final copy must be approved by adult sponsors and advisers. However, original preparation, arrangement into a "dummy" form, and proof-reading should be done by the children with feelings of responsibility.

Since the publication is a school enterprise, time should be provided at school for the preparation of material. Your daily schedule must be arranged accordingly, if educational values are to be realized. The grudging allowance of limited time for hasty work soon kills enthusiasm and lowers quality. It is advisable to provide special periods in the weekly schedule for publication work, including regular meetings of the staff. Additional time may be secured from independent work and free-choice periods. Much of the discussion concerning publications, the creative writing, and the selecting of materials are functional language-arts experiences. The writing of editorials, drawing cartoons, making a trip to a newspaper plant, and the establishing of editorial policies draw upon and vitalize social learnings. Determining costs, estimating circulation, handling money, and keeping accounts demand mathematics understandings and skills. Illustrating, lettering, and designing are functional expressions of art.

The children must know and feel that the publication is theirs in fact as well as in name. This is a crucial matter. It determines whether the publication is an end in itself or an instrument for learning by the children. If you are to avoid being a taskmaster or a workhorse, you must continually remember that your rôle is to suggest, advise, and direct, rather than command or do the actual work yourself. Work with the staff, share responsibility, help children learn, be tolerant of mistakes, and temper criticism.

Contributing Responsibility for Publication. There are many ways for you to contribute to the success of the school publication when it is not the direct responsibility of your home-room group. Continuing opportunities may be found for building recognition of the publication as an important school product. Specifically, you may help by making a happy occasion of receiving copies in your home room, by providing time for the children to read their copies, and by guiding critical reading and thoughtful discussion of the content. You may influence children to develop respect and feel pride in their school publication and encourage them to take their copies home. In this way parents, too, may gain greater insight into the work of the school.

When news and other types of contributions from your room are to be prepared, you will need to decide when this work is to be done. It may be done during a period set aside specifically for this job, during language-arts period, or at a free-choice time. If your home room has a rotating or permanent staff which collects material for transmission to the regular publications staff, you may assist with the election of members, guide the children as they select and edit materials to represent their room, and read the final copy before it is released. You will encourage individuals, small groups, and the group as a whole to create poems, essays, and stories to offer for publication.

The selecting of materials to be submitted for publication deserves careful consideration. Of course, the group will compliment individual children for good work well done. You will also give special attention to individuals who need recognition and encouragement. Tactful guidance will be needed in softening and eliminating children's negative criticisms of each others' contributions, in developing sufficient confidence and trust in the less mature children that they will venture to write, and in finding something good in even the poorest efforts. "You will want to work on your opening sentences and smooth up that last part, John." "Your second paragraph reads rather well, Mary. Try to make the rest as good." Such comments give John and Mary assurance that they have something on which to build.

There may be need to help the children gain perspective on their relative position in the school as a whole. They must not expect disproportionate recognition in the school's publication nor should they be disappointed at the space given them. You will also work to achieve a happy balance in the use of the publication as a motivating influence. Some children, more than others, need the recognition of having a contribution published. But raising unrealistic hopes of having materials published or dangling before children the promise of publication as a means of getting them to write at their best level may be insidious techniques which defeat their own ends. The enjoyment of selections from the publication,

with the corollary understanding that "children in our school" wrote these, carries its own encouraging influence without belaboring the idea or perverting the motives.

Developing a Home-room Publication. In addition to the all-school publication, or as a substitute for it if your school has no publication, you may encourage your children to develop an informal home-room periodical. An example of this is the home-room newspaper. In the early grades this often is used as part of the experience-reading program. The sharing period includes "news" of events that are significant to the children sharing them. Such news may range from "We have kittens, six of 'em," to "I brought this pumpkin from Grandpa's farm." The teacher helps the children to re-phrase their statements to make them direct, rhythmical, and sequential for easier reading, and writes them as short sentences on the chalkboard. Sometimes teachers regularly develop "daily news" with their groups. An example of this type of publication is:

Today's News

Today is Tuesday, February 23.

It is snowing.

Tony brought two goldfish this morning.

They are swimming in their bowl.

Mary's aunt is coming this afternoon.

She will read us some stories.

This "news" becomes functional reading material for the children. It may also be copied by the children to take home.

Older children can publish a newspaper that resembles the all-school publication. Such a paper may be multigraphed or otherwise duplicated for weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly distribution. News may be collected daily for later selection and editing. Creative work of children, reports of their work in various subjects or unit activities, and other suitable material would be gathered periodically to be considered for inclusion in successive issues. The home-room paper is an excellent means of promoting group morale since all of the children in the room may feel directly responsible for and take part in producing "their" paper. Moreover, the children would have wider opportunity for publication. Such a publication provides excellent opportunities for all phases of language-arts learnings.

Whether your room has a direct or contributing responsibility for an all-school publication or whether you have a home-room paper, you will work closely with your critic teacher in carrying on the work related to it. He can help you to relate effectively the publication work with other phases of the children's activities to achieve better integration of learning as well as to sharpen your perception of the rôle of publications in the whole-school program.

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

Preparation for democratic citizenship and the development of responsible self-direction are certainly two interrelated objectives of the elementary school. Since it is illogical and unrealistic to expect children to accept ideals or develop practices contrary to those which they live, these objectives can be reached only as children are citizens of their school and share in the responsibility for its operation. For these reasons the principle of child participation in school government is widely accepted in elementary schools. In some cases, it is true, the student participation is more form than fact in that its objective is administrative efficiency and teacher convenience rather than the education of the children in coöperative self-direction. In the main, however, modern elementary schools are endeavoring to provide experiences for children in democratic processes of group living, with opportunities to participate in determining policies and to accept responsibility for seeing that agreements are put into action.

In these processes of group living, schools differ in organizational practices. Some schools establish student councils. Other schools adapt the town-meeting plan. Many schools use child guides or some other desirable modification of a monitor system. Each of these will be discussed in the following sections, with emphasis upon your adjustment to the practices followed in the school where you are doing your student teaching and upon ways in which you may contribute to the success of the organization.

The Student Council. You realize, of course, that the school staff rather than the children bear official responsibility. Hence the student council is not a "child government" of the school but rather a means of educating children in the meaning and procedures of group living and social control. The student council should not be charged with the management of the school, holding court trials, or meting out punishments. The council deals with problems on the children's levels of understanding, within the sphere of their concern, and with the solution of which they can take effective action.

Over-all school policies such as the nature of the curriculum, promotion, failure, grade-placement, and punishment are difficult enough for mature teachers. Such complex questions should not be placed upon the children for decision and action. The student council can serve as the focal point for many whole-school activities of the children. It can sample opinion, guide and coördinate children's collections and campaigns, aid in setting and raising standards of behavior, and assume responsibility for various projects such as what to do with bicycles at school, how to eliminate cutting across lawns on the way home, or how to celebrate Hallowe'en at school.

Membership on student councils is determined in a variety of ways. The election of representatives by home-room groups is the soundest educational approach. Occasionally used but less justifiable means of selecting representatives are election by special clubs or by the school at large, appointment by the faculty, or automatic membership on the basis of school record. In a few cases members are appointed by the chairmen of children's organizations or by the school principal. The student council always has a faculty sponsor who works closely with it, who guides the council activity in such ways that it is representative of the student body.

If the school in which you are working has a student council, you may guide the participation of children in such activities as:

1. *Hearing council reports.* The council may use all-school assemblies for reporting on its activities, explaining action taken, raising questions of policy, or seeking increased cooperation from the school at large in carrying out a previously adopted plan. Members of the council may visit your home-room to make more specific reports, give detailed explanations, or secure the children's opinions. In either case, your leadership will be needed in guiding the children to give the report or proposal a fair hearing and due consideration.

2. *Discussing council proposals.* Following an assembly at which the council presented an idea or suggested a plan, or following the visit of a council representative to your home room, time will be needed to consider the proposals made. Such questions as how the plan will affect the home-room group, what the children can do to help, and how the plan will help improve the school are typical of those the children will consider.

3. *Submitting problems to the council.* From time to time various children in the home room may raise questions or make proposals that are appropriate for council action. Reminding the larger children of the need to respect the smaller children's play area, suggesting suitable activities for before and after school, proposing appropriate behavior for children visiting other home rooms during recesses may be typical of the problems suggested. Such questions will require your guidance of the children's discussion. The children will need your help in deciding what problems and proposals to make to the council, when and how to present them, what explanations to make in supporting their ideas.

4. *Following through on council action.* If the children are to respect their council and feel a genuine share in its responsibilities, the proposals and decisions of the council must not be arbitrarily presented nor dictatorially carried out. You will need to provide opportunity for your children to examine critically their council policies, analyze carefully the arguments for and against their council's decisions, and decide fairly how and the extent to which they are willing to follow their council's proposals. The rights of the minority to speak freely and work against policy in an open, honest manner must be preserved. In fact, these situations offer your best opportunity to teach open-mindedness and tolerance of differing views.

5. *Electing council members.* Any plan of selecting children for council membership, except direct appointment, offers opportunity for children in the various home rooms or organizations to consider criteria for membership, propose candidates, and discuss the qualifications desirable. Tact and under-

standing on the part of the teacher are especially needed in these discussions. Time will be needed for carrying out the election. Much direct, functional learning of the processes of democratic representative government is possible when the opportunities offered through electing council members are fully utilized.

In carrying through these responsibilities you will need to aid the children in understanding and interpreting the meaning and operation of representative government, the importance of the vote, the responsibilities and obligations of elected leadership, the duties and loyalties of those who elect representatives, and the rights of minorities.

Junior Town Meetings. The historical New England town meeting serves as a model for the direct participation by children in the government of their school. In the junior town meeting, matters of general concern to the school citizens are raised openly; each child has the right to present his ideas; decisions are coöperatively reached. The junior town meeting functions most effectively when one common problem is sufficiently important to merit the direct participation of all the children. Topics for junior town meetings may originate from problems raised by individual children, home-room groups, or the school staff.

In its simplest form the principal, a teacher sponsor, or a staff committee may preside during the assembly period. The presiding officer presents ideas and problems and hears all sides as various children request recognition, are given the floor, and volunteer their information and opinions. When all who wish to speak have been heard and sufficient discussion has been carried on, a decision may be reached by common consent, voice vote, or show of hands.

The junior town meeting offers another opportunity for you to take part in the life of the whole school. If you are teaching in the early grades, there will be need for explaining and interpreting the procedures, suggestions, and decisions. There will be questions and issues affecting these young children on which they will need help in understanding the problem and assistance with voting procedures. With children in the later-elementary grades there will be need for guidance before, during, and after the meeting. Before the meeting, you will need to discuss in the home room ways of contributing in assembly and alternate proposals if other groups are in disagreement. During the meeting, you may help by seeing that the children are behaving responsibly, by encouraging hesitant children to speak up, and by making personal contributions at appropriate times. After the meeting you may help your home-room group to analyze the proceedings and the direction of the discussion, to interpret the meaning of the decisions reached and the policies adopted, and to see that the plans are put into action. Other ways in which you may take part will be decided in conferences with your critic teacher.

The Child-guide Plan. The use of child guides in the modern elementary school is, potentially, an acceptable form of socially useful work. The children who serve as guides render very real assistance in a number of ways. They may contribute to improved safety through their activities in guarding dangerous balconies or playground borders on busy streets, and by cautioning other children in the use of drinking fountains, playground equipment, or stairs. They may assist in the efficient operation of the school through taking messages from the school office to various classrooms or from one room to another, by distributing supplies, and by caring for special equipment. Children serving as school guides may make contributions to the public relations of the school through greeting visitors and directing them to their destinations, through receiving telephone calls when the principal or school clerk is out of the office, and by reminding children of agreed-upon behavior in halls and passageways. These functions of the guides do not include direct responsibility for discipline, of course, since such responsibility might soon cause the child-guide plan to break down. Home-room groups take care of their own behavior in play areas, toilets, and hallways. The school staff exercises general supervision and carries out its responsibility for guiding behavior.

The child-guide plan is not as tightly organized as a council. It is usually an intermediate stage between having no child participation in school government and the organization of a student council. In many cases the plan has developed from the old "monitor system," in which children were appointed as monitors of behavior, controlling corridor traffic, supervising lunchroom behavior, inspecting playground areas, and serving as substitutes for teacher supervisors. In addition to placing upon the children greater responsibility than was justified by their maturity, the old monitor system emphasized the negative aspects of their supervisory duties. As a result, the children as a group tended to resent their activities and those individuals selected as monitors were frequently rejected by their fellows. In contrast, the modern child-guide plan emphasizes the positive, service aspects of the children's contributions. The home-room groups assist in selecting individuals to serve as guides, appreciate the services rendered, and regard selection as an honor.

If your school has a system of child guides, there are a number of ways in which you can help in the successful operation of the plan. You may:

1. Assist the sponsor in guiding the activities of the child guides.
2. Attend meetings of the children serving as school guides.
3. Assume a portion of the supervision of the work of the guides.
4. Spend portions of your non-teaching time working with various guides.
5. Consult with the guides as individuals and groups concerning their work.
6. Offer sympathetic understanding in considering specific problems with which various guides need assistance.

7. Utilize the services of the guides in appropriate ways.
8. Direct home-room discussion of ways in which the children may help the guides with their responsibilities.
9. Assist in the selection of individuals to serve as guides.
10. Explain and interpret the work of the guides to the home-room group and to other children when appropriate.
11. Contribute to general recognition of the contributions made to the school and the home room by the child guides.

Regardless of the extent to which you actively take part, you will have splendid opportunities to teach children the nature of government. In the process of working with children you, too, will learn much about how school government can operate effectively. Whether your school has a student council, a junior town meeting, a child-guide plan, or some combination of these forms of child participation in the government of the school, the basic purposes are the same. The child has experience with democratic processes through which healthy attitudes are developed. Ideals are inculcated. Habits of open-minded, fair, and just action are encouraged. In matters of school government, the elementary school can give children experiences that are the essence of the spirit of democracy.

SCHOOL RECREATION

It would be difficult, indeed, to find an elementary school in which the staff is not conscious of the important rôle of recreation in its physical, emotional, and social aspects. "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy" is an axiom of age-old wisdom now receiving further support from the scientific study of child learning. Not only must learning be active. Learning must also be satisfying, or children will not long pursue it willingly or well. In consequence, to achieve a balanced program, teachers are encouraging informal school parties and social events, and emphasizing the re-creative, liberating aspects of school life. In physical education the Prussian concept of mass drill and stern discipline is being disavowed in favor of lighter and more active group games and free play.

Children's physical and social recreation has become recognized as a major responsibility of the elementary school. Not only is it included in official statements of aims but actual provision is made for achieving this goal through home-room schedules and the program of the school as a whole. You may effectively take part in play activities, intra-mural athletics, and social events of the school.

Desirable Play Activities. A well organized physical-education program in the modern elementary school includes regularly scheduled periods for special instruction and supervised play, brief relief periods, and unassigned play time. In large, adequately staffed schools, the physical-education spe-

cialist assumes primary responsibility for giving instruction in group games, dancing, athletic skills, and exercises promoting muscular coordination. Schools not having such a special teacher sometimes allocate non-classroom responsibilities among the staff so that one or more of the classroom teachers serve as physical-education teachers also. In schools closely following the self-contained classroom plan, each home-room teacher assumes full charge of the physical-education and play activities of his group. The supervised-play periods may be under the direction of the physical-education teacher, rotate among the classroom teachers, or be the joint responsibility of the staff, each of whom supervises his own group. No special organization is needed for the relief periods since they are determined on the basis of the needs of individual classroom groups. Each teacher and his group simply "take a break" after a stretch of close, fatiguing work. Unassigned play times, including recess, the noon hour, and periods before and after school, are not highly organized. While it is often desirable that a teacher be available to give general supervision and to solve problems that arise, the children are allowed freedom to follow their own play interests.

The over-all plan for physical-education and play activities will have already been established, but you may have responsibility for arranging the schedule for your home-room group within the whole-school framework. In making your plans you will need to consider whether or not the staff includes a special teacher for physical education and, if so, the time and extent of his work with your group. The size of the playground, its location and suitability for various types of play activities, the availability of a gymnasium, and the variety and amount of equipment all have a bearing upon what it is possible for you to do with your part in the physical-education program. The periods when other groups are using the facilities must be considered as you arrange your schedule. In any case, you will provide a time for children to learn the skills of dancing and games and a time for semi-organized play under supervision. In the classroom you will watch for signs of restlessness and boredom, arranging a relief period with suitable activities as the children's needs indicate. You will also provide times for genuine free play.

Scheduled Physical Education. The regularly-scheduled period for physical education should be adjusted to the maturity level and needs of the children. Such adjustments include selecting simple games and rhythms for younger children, more advanced games, exercises, and dances for older children. Active games should be provided when the children are alert; quieter activities when colds are prevalent. Special provisions must be made for weak, undernourished, or convalescent children. Outdoor play should be provided as frequently as possible. During seriously inclement weather, children have even greater need for active

physical play and this must be provided indoors in some way. In addition to any requirements of the curriculum guide, the activities of this period may, on occasion, be coordinated with the instructional emphasis of the home-room program. For example, archery might be introduced to a group reading *Robin Hood*, or folk-dancing be enjoyed by children studying pioneers.

In adjusting your work with a regularly-scheduled period of physical education and supervised play, you will work closely with the teacher in charge. If, as often happens, a student majoring in physical education is doing his student teaching at the same time, you will have much in common and may render each other mutual assistance. However, no matter who is in charge, you should frequently accompany your children during the period. The advantages of seeing and knowing children in the play situation greatly outweigh most of the jobs that could be done in the classroom during this time. In helping your children and in cooperating with the special teacher, you may have responsibility and opportunity to:

1. Serve as an active assistant to the physical-education specialist.
2. Report the conditions of individual children who are under par physically, emotionally upset, or socially maladjusted.
3. Encourage the timid, uncertain individuals who need "moral support."
4. Observe physical development, dexterity, reaction-time, and social adjustment of individual children in physically-active situations.
5. Follow up, in your supervised-play periods, new games that have been taught.
6. Guide additional practice of exercises, stunts, and games.
7. Record accomplishments of children in athletic skills.
8. Guide the supplementary reading of some children with reference to special physical-education teachings, such as physical fitness or the history of games.
9. Acquaint the physical-education teacher with current emphases in other school work.
10. Prepare alternative activities for those days when the playground or gymnasium cannot be used.

In self-contained classrooms, where the classroom teacher is responsible for the physical-education program, you may have opportunities to:

1. Select games and exercises appropriate to the maturity levels of the children.
2. Relate the organized instruction to the classroom work of the children.
3. Teach children how to lead others and provide leadership experiences.
4. Modify games and exercises in terms of the seasons, the weather, and the physical conditions of the children.
5. Build, with the children, a file of favorite games, dances, and exercises.
6. Adjust competition so that no child is continually defeated, frustrated, or obviously a failure.
7. Build ideals and habits of fair play.
8. Promote interest in activities which will continue into adult recreation.

Brief Relief Periods. The relief periods should be planned for and provided as needed. Young children should not be required to endure periods of physical inactivity longer than about twenty minutes. As they mature, they may engage in physically passive pursuits for somewhat longer periods. However, children in the upper grades of the elementary school probably should not be required to sit at reading, writing, and similar work longer than about forty minutes without the relief of active physical exercise.

In schools of an earlier day, relief periods of three to five minutes were quite necessary, as instruction emphasized the "skills and drills" at the expense of other aspects of child development. Essentially "reading schools," they held children for long periods at unnaturally quiet, close work. Poor light frequently added to the strain. In such schools, relief periods have fortunately been used to relax children and relieve the pressure. As used in such programs, children simply stood, took exercises or walked around, got a drink of water, and sat down again to more close work.

In a modern program, relaxation is more naturally achieved through properly spaced recesses, a flexible schedule, and a normal amount of conversation and movement about the room. However, when group work demands longer periods of time together, the wise teacher watches for signs of wandering attention, random movement, or tension, and provides momentary relaxation and relief after which the children come back refreshed to the work which they had been doing. You will want to be prepared for such needs which can be met through short periods of active play in the classroom, hallway, gymnasium, or out of doors. To assure yourself of having suitable games and play opportunities during these brief periods, you may:

1. Develop a list of simple games which require only a few minutes, such as "dodge-ball," "Fox-and-geese," and running races.
2. Collect games which may be played serially, continuing from one period to the next, such as "ring-toss," "jack-rocks," "hop-scotch."
3. Encourage casual recreation, such as use of swings, see-saws, parallel bars, tossing and catching balls.
4. Build a list of games which can be played in confined spaces, such as "touch-tag," "follow-the-leader," and bean-bag games.
5. Use the period for relaxing conversation and visiting among the children.
6. Allow children simply to rest, as individuals need it.

Supervised Play. Ordinarily, supervised play goes on in the regularly scheduled physical-education periods. Sometimes certain days are set aside for this purpose. At other times, part of a given period is devoted to direct instruction and the remainder to free play. In supervised play times, children should have much freedom of action. You can justify such

freedom, of course, by educationally valid use of the time. Naturally, you will avoid "turning 'em loose to blow off steam" by getting into fights, damaging property, to "work off surplus energy" by persecuting some one child, or to huddle in aimless inactivity. The period devoted to supervised play is a regular part of the school program and should contribute as much to the educational development of children, in its unique ways, as other periods of comparable length.

In your efforts to realize the educational possibilities of supervised play, suggestions from the previous lists may be of help. In addition, the following guides are offered:

1. Consider the period as an integral part of the whole school program, complementary rather than supplementary.
2. Regard supervision as guidance of the most effective kind.
3. Develop a reserve of ideas for suggestion to children as needed.
4. Cultivate informal techniques of "getting things going" rather than merely leaving children to their own devices or ordering them to play this or that game.
5. Work out, if you are delegated responsibility for the period, a flexible schedule of suitable activities for various days of the week, various parts of the gymnasium or playground, and for children of various abilities and needs.
6. Provide ample opportunity for free play, free choice of games, and for free selection of playmates, working tactfully to eliminate the complete rejection of individual children.
7. Serve willingly as referee, umpire, or "the fellow on the other end of the see-saw."
8. Encourage children to develop their abilities to select, organize, and conduct their own games and other recreation.
9. Utilize the opportunities offered to meet and know children on a person-to-person basis in a relaxed atmosphere.
10. Be cheery, friendly, and interested in the various individuals and groups, rather than aloof, impersonal, or "supervisory" in manner.

During the supervised play period, you will have a good opportunity to learn how to maintain alert awareness of all play areas, to spot trouble brewing and alleviate tensions, and to participate directly with children in their varied activities.

Intramural Athletics. Contests between schools may be strongly questioned for children of elementary-school age. Competitive games between groups within the same school, when properly organized and carefully supervised, avoid the dangers of interscholastic athletics. They may achieve such advantages as offering opportunity for learning how to compete, stressing values of teamwork, adding interest and zest to school life, encouraging continued participation in active sports and games. The intramural program should be planned to minimize spectator rôles through building active interest in participation in baseball, racing model

airplanes, soccer, shooting marbles, track and field, flying kites, and the like.

You may render considerable service to the school by assisting those responsible for the program of intramural athletics. Such services as helping arrange schedules of games or events, keeping score, serving as an official, and rendering first aid to skinned knees are always welcome. If there is no physical-education specialist, you may volunteer your services to the classroom teacher who is responsible. You may serve as a consultant, adviser, or coach to the children in your room, helping them select team members, practice for games, and use their strengths to their best advantage. You will, of course, strive to avoid over-emphasis upon the competitive aspects of contests and encourage participation of every child in some phase of the program.

Social Events. As the rôle of the elementary school has expanded to include all phases of children's wholesome development, its functions in promoting poise, tact, and understanding of acceptable behavior have become increasingly recognized. If it is difficult to learn facts and skills in the abstract and out of context, it is likewise difficult to learn the social graces by memoriter methods. Each of you has seen this illustrated by the awkwardness of people who seemed to "know the words but not the music" of proper behavior. Real understanding of social relationships and poise in dealing with people is achieved only through experiences in genuine social situations.

You are undoubtedly aware of your opportunities for improving the social effectiveness of children. Of course, you are helping children acquire the *outer forms of social intercourse* such as taking turns, picking up dropped objects, holding the door for others, making requests rather than demands, saying "please" and "thank you," replying courteously to questions, and the like. Genuine social effectiveness, however, goes deeper than the niceties of politeness just mentioned. The school has responsibility for helping each child become socially effective—to act with ease and poise in evidencing concern for the comfort and welfare of others. Social occasions at school provide for children opportunities to adapt to new people, to think creatively in new social situations, and to be alert and responsible in contributing to the success of the social occasion. To achieve a desirable balance of socially educative situations, your school may sponsor a variety of informal social events.

You may find that the school encourages room groups to have parties of their own, as one birthday party for all whose birthdays fall within the month, parties for other rooms, or joint parties held by several rooms. There may also be social events involving the whole school, such as picnics, luncheons or suppers, carnivals, play days, and parties. These occasions, involving most or all of the children in the school, will be

organized and directed by a committee of teachers, one teacher, or the principal. Your best help will probably be through volunteering your services to your critic teacher and the chairman for the event.

In the kindergarten and early-elementary grades the social aspects of group living are of unique importance. Young children, naturally ego-centered, need carefully guided experiences in playing with others, eating with others, and in such sharing as is involved in party situations. The more immature the children, the more important are such experiences in promoting self-confidence, poise, independence, and ease in social relationships with other children and adults. The learnings of young children are largely direct and personal, centered about daily happenings and personal events of significance to them. Occasional talk, drawing and painting, reading, and play may be centered about holidays and special occasions. Throughout the year, such days as Hallowe'en, Valentine Day, Christmas, and Mother's Day furnish a continuing series of special occasions on which simple, informal parties may be held. In addition to the socializing effects of the parties themselves, valuable learnings are acquired through thoughtful but not exhaustive planning, careful but not extensive preparation, and natural follow-up discussion.

There are a number of ways in which you may help the children in your room with their social development. You may guide them in discussing plans for the social event, and aid them in planning and working out their share of preparations. You may increase the children's awareness of socially acceptable behavior through discussion of the way people acted at the last picnic, luncheon, or party, what behavior they admired, of what they disapproved, and so on. If you can tactfully guide these discussions into consideration of standards for their own behavior and agreements to try to live up to them during the event, you will be making no small contribution.

During the event, you will want to supervise unobtrusively, seeing that plans work out and encouraging children to live up to their behavior agreements. You will also set a good example through being genuinely sociable yourself. Follow-up discussion may include a general appraisal of the success of the event, a consideration of the social effectiveness of the group, and projection of ways to improve future social affairs.

SPECIAL-INTEREST GROUPS

One of the effective means by which the elementary school utilizes the unique abilities and interests of children is through special-interest groups. With the exception of home-room clubs, whose activities are really an integral part of classroom instruction, special-interest groups include cross-sections of the school's population. They require rather systematic

organization and supervision. This section is devoted to discussion of ways in which you might contribute to all-school special-interest groups.

Hobby Groups. The possibilities for children's hobbies are almost limitless. The range of hobbies may extend from "Junior Aviators" to "Zoo Fans." Effective teachers are alert to discover the present and potential hobbies of the individual children in their groups. They creatively see ways to further hobby interests, to foster children's socialization through these interests, and to recognize other educative by-products of hobbies without over-emphasizing them. Such teachers recognize that the pursuit of hobbies frequently helps children become better adjusted and more interesting personalities.

Many teachers encourage the formation of one or more hobby clubs within the home-room group. Thus, a fifth-grade group may have a "Pet Club," a "Reading Club," and a "Stamp Collector's Club." These clubs, which frequently have overlapping memberships, may meet during the free-choice period on different days. They may report some of their activities to the entire room from time to time during sharing periods. As such special-interest groups are organized and proceed with their activities, teachers attempt to guide their work so that each child has an opportunity to join a hobby group.

When the same hobby is followed by children in several rooms, a whole-school special-interest group may be formed. Usually, such a hobby group is sponsored by a classroom teacher who has some special knowledge, experience, or interest in the particular hobby, or who is simply concerned that children have opportunities of following mutual interests.

There are a number of ways in which a student teacher might assist hobby groups:

1. Show genuine interest in the children's hobbies.
2. Encourage individual children to join a club which is related to his hobby interests.
3. Display enthusiasm for reports and displays of club accomplishments.
4. Take time to listen and talk about hobby matters.
5. Provide time, particularly during sharing period, for comments, explanations, and displays of individual hobbies and club projects.
6. Help set up a "Hobby Day" for the home room or for the school, during which children display their work, explain it to visitors, and visit the exhibits of others.
7. Assist club officers and members with their problems.
8. Locate books, shops, and other sources of materials of interest to club members.
9. Assist the sponsor of the group with supervision and meetings.

Art, Drama, and Music Groups. These areas of special interest are usually under the guidance of special teachers or of regular classroom

teachers who have a particular interest in art, dramatics, or music. These groups are of such a nature that they are generally more successful with the continued supervision of a sponsor having some technical competence.

You may find that, due to the presence of capable and interested children, special all-school groups such as a chorus, band, dramatic group, art club have been organized. If you have special ability in any of these activities, this is a way in which you will be able to assist in the whole-school program. If any of these forms of expression happens to be a strong interest of yours, you may achieve personal relaxation and enjoyment at the same time that you promote the work of the school. You may be able to arrange your schedule so that you can attend meetings of the group and join in some of the activities.

Ways in which you may further the school's work in special art, drama, and music activities may be found within your classroom procedures:

1. Help children learn to keep appointments promptly.
2. Include consideration of children's preparation for these activities in general planning. For example, help children remember to have musical instruments or art materials ready.
3. Encourage children to make use of their special abilities in their independent work at home.
4. Adapt the work in the home room in such ways that children in all-school groups do not "miss out" on unusually significant group experiences.
5. Provide opportunities for children in the special groups to share their accomplishments, such as displaying their sketches, singing, or playing their instruments.
6. Arrange for appropriate recognition of the contribution to the enrichment of school life made by children in art, drama, or music special-interest groups.
7. Organize, if possible, home-room special-interest groups or free-choice activities so that these go on at the same time all-school groups are meeting.

Service Groups. Just as it is recognized that children should share in carrying on classroom responsibilities, so is it being recognized that children should share in the successful operation of their school. The student council, school newspaper, and assembly programs contribute in their unique ways to this end. Other service groups furnish an excellent means by which children can make very real and practical contributions to the management of the school. Typical of such children's service groups are those organized about safety, messenger service, office help, lost-and-found, and library work. These kinds of services to the school frequently widen opportunities for the responsible participation of children who do not have unusual abilities or talents.

The student teacher works with these groups most effectively through

home-room activities, as he makes use of services and helps children with their service functions. Members of the service groups often need assistance in performing successfully their individual duties. You may render the children such assistance by:

1. Making certain that the children fully understand what they are supposed to do.
2. Settling disputes and disagreements about who is to render a given service, how it is to be done, and so on.
3. Keeping service responsibilities in appropriate relationship to other school work.
4. Scheduling times during which children may perform services and helping them keep appointments.
5. Helping with technical aspects of certain services, such as filing in the library, proper manner of answering the telephone, correct way of recording messages, how to enter classrooms and offices, and so on.
6. Supporting the authority or responsibility of children in positions of service.
7. Continuing encouragement and stimulation to help children avoid slackening of effort and interest in their accepted service responsibilities.
8. Working out ways of recommending certain children for service, as their need for such experiences is recognized.
9. Providing that standards of service and amount of service expected of children are kept at realistic levels.

Your sensitive understanding of the children, tactful recognition, and warmly expressed appreciation of their services will be especially worth while. In your daily work you will try to provide that children's services are used, but not abused. The children must not be exploited, but do need sufficient requests for their services to make them feel useful.

General Guides for Special-interest Groups. You have already discovered many specific ideas and suggestions for working with the special-interest groups of the school. Since individual schools differ widely in practices and organization, you may discover other ways of working with children's special-interest groups as you continue your student teaching. As a means of highlighting the major questions you are likely to meet, general suggestions for guiding children's special-interest groups are here summarized:

1. Each child should be encouraged to take part in some special-interest group.
2. Children's special-interest groups should have open, rather than elective, membership.
3. Membership should be primarily on the basis of benefit to the child rather than on the basis of the skill that he has to contribute.
4. Membership in a special-interest group should not be used as a reward for success in academic work, nor withdrawal of the privilege as a penalty.
5. Children having little leadership ability when elected to office should be helped to succeed.

6. Special-interest groups generally should be financially supported by the school rather than through membership dues or personal solicitations.
7. The work of children's special-interest groups should be recognized as an integral part of the total school program.
8. Time should usually be provided during the regular school day for meetings of special-interest groups.
9. Children's special-interest groups need teacher supervision—supervision which is directive, suggestive, and democratic.

SCHOOL COMMUNITY GROUPS

The elementary school, potentially, has close contacts with homes. Parent-child ties are intimate during the elementary-school years and community-school ideals are realizable in schools serving relatively homogeneous areas. The relationships of elementary-school staffs to parents and patrons contribute vitally to successful public relations for the school system, since the general public comes into contact with its educational system largely through the work of local school units. Moreover, the success of the program of the modern elementary school depends upon the understanding, coöperation, and participation of the adults in the community.

The chief function of teachers in relationship with informal groups and community organizations is the interpretation of the purposes of the school and of the ongoing curriculum work. Educators who successfully discharge these functions achieve for their school and the entire system greater support from the community. As professional satisfactions, teachers achieve insight into parental and community attitudes, make new friends for the school, and get constructive assistance from parents in the guidance of their children.

You have already learned that parents can make good partners in the mutual enterprise of educating children. Occasionally, a teacher is mistrustful of groups of parents and community organizations because such groups may add to the work and problems of the teacher or exert pressure to advance the narrow purposes of one individual or clique. Such suspicion or opposition sometimes stems from the teacher's insecurity and incompetence in social relationships or inability to explain intelligently the educational program in progress. Most teachers, however, recognize that this partnership is a cooperative venture from which both the home and the school gain. Through your student-teaching contacts with parent groups or community organizations, you may promote the program of the school as well as increase your own competence as a teacher.

Parent Groups. The parent organization most common in elementary schools is the Parent-Teacher Association. Some schools have similar organizations that are local rather than affiliated on a national scale.

Parents are sometimes grouped by grade level or home room of their children as "Room Mothers' Club," or "Third Grade Parents." In addition, there may be special-interest organizations such as "Band Fathers," or "Mother Singers." These various types of groups carry on their special school interests as part of the over-all school program.

In many elementary schools the parents organize themselves into study groups. These parent study groups may be organized on an all-school basis if the school is small, by grade levels, or according to special interests and problems. Especially in large schools is grouping by special problems likely to be found. The parent study groups usually establish a year's program of topics based upon the care, rearing, and education of children, read and discuss educational literature, and listen to competent speakers. Members of the teaching staff are frequently asked to make talks and sit in on discussions.

The student teacher has a unique rôle in his work with parent groups. He grows professionally as he takes some part in their work. As a student teacher working in the school temporarily, you will naturally endeavor to ascertain what policies guide the activities of parent groups in their work in the school and will follow those policies in whatever contacts you may have. The quality of the interaction between teachers and parent groups is determined by the genuineness and "feeling-tone" of the human relations involved. Your sensitiveness to the existing relationships, your awareness of the attitudes of others, and your tact and poise will enable you to participate constructively.

You may be more effective in your contacts with parent groups, as well as with individual parents, as you recognize that it is frequently difficult for them to understand the modern school curriculum. Research and professional study result in sounder theories of learning, in new methods and materials of teaching, in a more practical organization of instruction. These are relatively involved, technical matters in which you have spent several years of professional study. Most parents have not had the specialized preparation of teachers. Those who did, and were themselves teachers, had their preparation several years ago. Many have not been in touch with the elementary school since they were children themselves. The fact that the parents join school groups and, out of their own busy lives, take time to attend meetings is evidence of their interest. That interest, based upon their hope that the school will contribute to the development of their children, provides the finest opportunity for explaining and interpreting the work and program of the school and for securing the points of view of the parents themselves. Your critic teacher will be an invaluable guide in these interchanges of ideas. You can become more resourceful in parent relations from your observation of how your critic teacher explains present methods of teaching, interprets children's

achievement, discusses placement-promotion policies, and receives suggestions and complaints from parents.

The most readily available opportunity for contacts with parent groups is attendance at their meetings. You may also offer your services for activities in which you can help. This may range from playing the piano for an opening song at a meeting to taking part in a play to raise money for playground equipment. Since student teaching is a full experience in itself, you will use judgment in determining the extent of services you will offer and how active a part to take in the programs of parent groups.

You may have many opportunities to explain to interested parents what you are doing. To those unfamiliar with professional preparation for teaching, your explanation will be helpful and reassuring. Those who are former teachers will have sympathetic understanding of your work and problems and a common bond of interest as they recall their own experiences. In these contacts with parent groups and individual fathers and mothers, you have a real opportunity to contribute to the improved public relations of your school. The comments of parents are worth listening to for the increased knowledge you gain of the extent to which the school's program is understood, as well as for background information about the children you are teaching. By your poise and the clarity of your explanations you may increase public respect for your profession, promote understanding of modern education, and help parents appreciate their school.

Community Service Organizations. Your student teaching is almost certain to bring you into some contact with community service organizations such as welfare and charity societies, government agencies, business, labor, or agricultural organizations, and various religious groups. While the activities of community service groups are not as directly related to the school's work as are those of parent groups, they do affect and involve the participation of the school.

You will, of course, be ready to assist these community welfare groups as they serve the school. The extent of your participation will be realistically gauged to the demands of your teaching responsibilities. Such participation may include identifying children who need financial aid, medical aid, or visual and auditory corrections; coöperating in entertainment projects; or collecting funds or materials for special purposes. Normally, your critic teacher is the one who will receive any such requests. Your help will largely be through your work with your critic teacher and in terms of his judgment concerning the need and appropriateness of the service requested.

The teacher's effort is primarily directed toward the well-rounded educational development of children. His coöperation with agencies outside

the school must be defined and limited in terms of that basic responsibility. The time and effort you give to work with community agencies must not result in neglecting the primary objectives of your teaching. It will be well to keep in mind, in your relations with community groups, that while they work for the betterment of the community and thus affect the school, most of them operate as independent organizations so far as the school is concerned.

As a student teacher, you have only twenty-four hours in the day, to be distributed wisely for rich personal and professional living. As you take part in the whole-school program, your critic teacher and you will take care so to balance your load that you fulfill your primary responsibility to children in the classroom and work only in those whole-school activities that "make sense" in direct relation to your insight into how children can participate effectively in their total school living.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

Your work in the whole school is interwoven with your classroom work. In order to achieve a sensible balance in the distribution of your attention, as well as to insure satisfactory breadth of experience, you need to examine your participation in whole-school activities. The following criteria are offered for your guidance.

1. *School Assembly Programs:*

How have you utilized the assemblies in planning and carrying out activities with the children in your room? What conclusions have you drawn from your experiences with room programs, club programs, and programs for parents? On what happenings do you base your conclusions?

2. *School Publications:*

Specifically, how have you used school publications to achieve desirable educational results? On the basis of your recent experience, what are your future plans for using school publications?

3. *School Government:*

In what ways is the children's participation in their school government real? Merely superficial? How have you contributed to the children's participation?

4. *School Recreation:*

What has been your rôle in improving playground activities for children? Intramural athletics? The school's social events? How have you utilized children's social experiences in educational ways?

5. *Special-Interest Groups:*

In what ways have you been able to help the children with their special-interest groups? How can you further assist these special-interest groups?

6. *School Community Groups:*

With what community groups have you had contacts? What have you done to increase your understanding of the work of community groups? How have you been of service to the school in your work with community groups?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. "I can learn more about an elementary school from twenty minutes spent in an assembly program than from an hour visiting other activities," an elementary supervisor stated. For what reasons might this comment be justified?
2. The principle of integration of experiences for effective learning extends beyond the classroom to whole-school activities. What instances can you cite from your student teaching that relate to this idea?
3. Primary emphasis upon product rather than upon process defeats the purposes of elementary education. Such a misplaced emphasis is frequently observed in connection with athletics and publications. How may such weaknesses be avoided?
4. It is sometimes said that to have a well-rounded edoeational program in a self-contained classroom requires a super-teacher. On the other hand, it is widely accepted that departmentalized instruction emphasizes subjects and skills at the expense of child development. What should be the relationship of the special teacher to the classroom teacher in the modern school?
5. School people are sometimes heard to complain that community agencies tend to exploit the school in certain instances. Under what kinds of arrangements might this be true? How could exploitation be avoided tactfully?
6. The ego-projection of parents into their children's lives is a problem sometimes faced by teachers in protecting children from undue pressure for perfection of performance in assembly programs, music activities, athletic games, and the like. How may such tendencies be recognized? How may they be reduced or eliminated?
7. "Childhood is not too soon to begin learning the nature of democratic citizenship, and children's participation in school government is the way to teach it." What are the arguments in favor of such a position? What cautions should be observed in putting such a policy into effect?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

BROOKS, B. Marian, and BROWN, Harry A., *Music Education in the Elementary School* (New York, American Book Co., 1946).

This book may be of use in the classroom teacher who takes an active interest in the music experiences of the children. Chapters Seven, "Design of a Program in Music Education," and Fourteen, "Creative Music as Individual Musical Originality," are suggested for reference in planning activities to fit into the whole-school curricular pattern.

CURTISS, Mary Louise, and CURTISS, Adelaide B., *Physical Education for Elementary Schools* (Milwaukee, Bruce Publishing Co., 1945).

This volume is a practical treatment of "what to do." It explains games, describes equipment, and outlines the organization of a workable, healthful program. A rather extensive list of recordings for songs, dances, and rhythms adds to the usefulness of the book.

DELEMA, Agnes, *The Little Red School House* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1941).

The author succeeds admirably in conveying the feeling and spirit of friendly relationships between children of different groups working together in the whole-school program. Chapters XIII, "Detours in Education," and XV, "Our Classrooms Have No Walls," are especially pertinent.

EVERETT, Samuel (Editor), *The Community School* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1938).

You will be interested in the definitions of the community-school idea. There are also many illustrations of how various schools have developed community relationships and of how the work of the school was affected.

FOSTER, Josephine C., and HEADLEY, Neith E., *Education in the Kindergarten* (New York, American Book Co., 1948).

Chapter V, "Provision for Physical Welfare," Chapter XI, "Free Play in the Kindergarten," and Chapter XV, "Games in the Kindergarten," are directly related to the work of the teacher in whole-school activities.

GARDNER, Ella, *Handbook for Recreation Leaders*, Children's Bureau Publication No. 331 (Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1936).

You will find this inexpensive pamphlet a useful reference for your work on the playground. Group games are listed and indexed for use with various groups in different situations.

MACOMBER, Freeman Glenn, *Guiding Child Development in the Elementary School* (Cincinnati, American Book Co., 1941).

You will find Chapters IX, "Developing Appreciations and Self-Expression," and XIV, "Additional Factors in Teaching Success," quite helpful for their suggestions concerning children's social understanding.

McKOWN, Harry C., *Activities in the Elementary School* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938).

The author includes many helpful specific details of how the various all-school enterprises are carried on.

MURRAY, Josephine, and BATHURST, Essie G., *Creative Ways for Children's Programs* (New York, Silver Burdett Co., 1938).

Unlike many books on school entertainment, the authors stress the educational values of children's programs. Suggestions and guides for home-room programs, holiday occasions, and club programs are included.

ORIENTEUFER, Delbert, *School Health Education* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949).

This volume will broaden your conception of your rôle in contributing to the health program of the school. Chapter 1, "Introduction—Health in Education," may be of assistance through its explanation of the responsibilities of the school; and Chapter 6, "The Integrated Program," suggests ways of involving health education in the on-going activities of the school.

PART THREE

Extension of Professional Competences

CHAPTER XIII

Making the Most of Conferences

In learning to teach, undoubtedly "experience is the best teacher." There is no substitute in the education of teachers for direct contacts with children in learning situations. The professional reading that one does, the meetings which one attends, the professional audio-visual aids one sees and hears, and the courses one takes all are important, of course. But all these facilitate rather than substitute for teaching in a real classroom situation.

During your student teaching, conferences will undoubtedly constitute a major source of help in improving your competence. In all your professional preparation, you have probably never felt more than you do now an urgent need to talk over purposefully and immediately what you are doing. To get additional help on how to cope with problems as they arise frequently requires discussion of the matter with someone whose judgment and expertness you respect. To share successes and achievements in teaching calls for a sympathetic ear. To sense fully the "teamwork spirit" of your directed teaching experience makes imperative the sharing of ideas on how best to proceed in specific situations.

For such purposes as these, conferences are included in your regular schedule while you are doing your student teaching. These conferences have as their prime objective service to you in providing working conditions conducive to mental and physical health, as well as functional guidance during your first major teaching responsibility.

There is, at least potentially, a further interrelated objective of which you should be aware. In all public schools various kinds of conferences are utilized to improve teaching, to raise the quality of the educative experiences which children are having at school. As you begin your first year as a regular teacher, you will want to be as well prepared as possible to participate coöperatively and effectively in these professional meetings. Your individual conferences with your critic teacher or college supervisor have much in common with the kinds of discussions which you will have with your principal or elementary supervisor. The group conferences involving other student teachers will be similar in many ways to the teachers' meetings in which you will participate in public-school situations. Throughout your conferences as a student teacher you will

be getting guidance in how to do your best work with children. You will also be experiencing directly the rôle of the teacher in realistic professional conference situations.

While the college in which you are doing your work will have its own general organization and specific arrangements for conferences, there are many helpful guide lines that can be pointed out for your benefit. The adaptation of these suggestions to your own student-teaching situation calls for your astute consideration of how to apply them significantly.

THE INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE

To confer means to consult together. To consult means to consider or counsel. In other words, there can be no real individual conference without common purposes, without mutual respect, without coördination of efforts and activities, without the utilization of democratic principles of action.

There are some people who view a conference as a situation in which one person takes the lead in thinking while the other person is always the follower of advice and suggestions. Some people presume that during a conference one person will do most of the talking, while the other person listens and acquiesces. In a democratic conference situation these misconceptions do not prevail. Rather, the spirit of the democratic conference demands a meeting not only in the physical sense but also a meeting of minds in an atmosphere of rapport and mutual concern for the best interests of the other fellow.

From the individual conference you will probably receive your most direct help in improving your teaching competences. This type of conference is designed to meet your unique needs and purposes as you work with children. This conference is for you. Its reason for being is to make your teaching more effectual. Based on your present problems, practices, and procedures, the individual conference is the time in which you have the opportunity to get concentrated, undivided assistance in your professional development.

Organization of Individual Conferences. Colleges differ widely with regard to organizational practices that affect individual conference plans. In some situations the student teacher spends the whole day in the classroom for a semester or quarter; in others he spends only a portion of the day. In some situations only one student teacher at a time works in a given room; in others more than one student teacher is assigned to the same room. In some colleges the student teacher's contacts are chiefly with the critic teacher; in others he works closely with both a critic teacher and a college supervisor. The amount of time, the number of student teachers involved in the situation, and the personnel with whom working relations

must be established all make a difference in how you will proceed in general planning for your individual conferences.

More specifically, you will first need to be clear as to the persons with whom you will hold your individual conferences. In your college, you may hold your individual conferences with the critic teacher only; you may have your conferences with the college supervisor only; or you may have regular individual conferences with each. A second consideration is your understanding of what is expected in terms of frequency of conferences. Will they be daily, weekly, or managed in some other time pattern? A third question involves the time of day for these conferences. Will they come immediately following your teaching? Will they come before school in the morning or at the end of the school day? A fourth consideration is the place for the conferences. Will they be held in the classroom where you are teaching or in an office on the campus?

By knowing and adapting to the organizational practices of your college, you will be better prepared to make the most of the conference situation. You will be able to utilize your time efficiently, plan your schedule of activities sensibly, and prepare for conferences advantageously. This will be mutually beneficial to the critic teacher or college supervisor and yourself.

Conference Characteristics. Good individual conferences do not just happen. They depend for their effectiveness on the willingness of two people to try to understand each other and to be socially sensitive to the well-being of each other. Conferring can be a mechanical, perfunctory, stiff, question-and-answer, clock-watching affair. Or it can be creative, a pooling of two persons' best ideas about matters mutually recognized as significant. One conferee alone cannot make consultation succeed. It takes two coöperatively-minded individuals—thinking independently together—to make a conference turn out well.

To help you do your share in designing individual conferences, the following general characteristics are presented:

1. *Both persons have an equal responsibility for clarifying the purposes of each conference.* (Why do we need this conference?) Whenever you are involved in an individual conference, it is time well spent to make sure that both conferees are agreed upon the reasons for the conference. To try to begin without clear understandings of just what needs to be talked over is sooner or later wasteful in terms of time and leads to misconceptions. Since no two conferences will ever be on quite the same problems or topics, agreements must be reached each time as to what the major emphasis during the consultation will be.

2. *Both persons accept responsibility for promptness in meeting each conference appointment.* (Just when shall we meet?) Punctuality is imperative, since both persons involved will be very busy people whose time should not be wasted in just waiting for the other to appear. If, for good reason, one

person is delayed or finds it necessary to cancel the appointment, the other should be informed as soon as possible.

3. *Both persons accept responsibility for bringing to the conference pertinent data and materials on the subject to be discussed.* (Have we brought with us all the things that we need to make the conference go well?) Frequently a conference is dependent upon specific information, recorded data, or learning materials. Part of the meeting may be directly devoted to working with concrete evidence or planning in terms of certain materials. In these cases verbalization is not good enough. Illustrative materials are necessary. Examples of things that may be helpful include: school records; specific information on individual children; evaluative instruments; planning notebooks; instructional materials; samples of children's work; and so on. Before the conference, agreements should be reached as to just what each person will have available for use or for discussion.

4. *Both persons come to the conference with a disposition and willingness to communicate freely and clearly.* (Am I ready to "think out loud" during this meeting?) Communication is at the heart of successful conferring. Verbalization that is aimed at taking the other person in on what one is thinking is imperative. Since individual consultation has as its purpose the improvement of one's teaching, during the conference there may be frank, but pleasant, expressions of difference of opinion. Each conferee should be free to ask pertinent questions, to raise issues, to present differing proposals, to ask for evidence. It is only when natural, open, honest communication prevails that individual conferences serve their best purposes.

5. *Both persons accept responsibility for the wise use of time.* (Is this matter worth the time it is taking?) At best, conference time is limited. Every meeting should be arranged to utilize economically the periods set aside for this purpose. The atmosphere should be relaxed, but business-like procedures should be followed from beginning to end. When the questions or topics for the conference have been agreed upon, it then becomes the obligation of both conferees to see that these matters are discussed. Avoidance of rambling side-tracks or unnecessary details helps to keep the conference moving constructively ahead. Each matter talked over should be allocated time in relation to its relative importance in achieving the purposes agreed upon at the beginning. When matters of importance have been completed, the conference should be terminated without awkward delay, in a friendly, natural manner.

6. *Both persons keep records of suggestions, agreements, and responsibilities growing out of the conference.* (What do we need to write down for further reference?) During conference times there are many ideas to be talked over and considered. Unless both conferees take responsibility for recording pertinent matters, these thoughts may be forgotten or may not be available for further reference when they are most needed. It is not impolite to jot down significant points during the discussion. It is, rather, an evidence of mature judgment, a sign that these suggestions are of sufficient concern that both conferees will want to follow through on constructive criticisms and responsibilities.

7. *Both persons leave the conference with intent to act.* (What is to be done about the matters discussed?) Conferring is just so much waste motion unless the conferees are planning and evaluating in terms of definite further action. If communication is frank and free, there will be common understandings of what is to be done by each person before the next conference. It is

unfair for either person to leave the conference without having been open and above-board concerning things that he knows cannot be done or that he has no intention of doing. When these cases arise, "honesty is the best policy." It leaves the door open for further consultation before definite commitments are made. Moreover, one should not leave the conference before he has gotten the help he sought, for he frequently cannot carry out agreements nor is he able to act effectively and intelligently without such help. As the result of a good conference, both conferees have clear understandings concerning the answers to these questions: What is to be done? What am I going to do about it?

8. *Both persons take responsibility for professional consideration of clinical problems.* (Are we discussing problems that are our concern?) In the conference it is frequently necessary to discuss the behavior of individual children or the impingement of the student teacher's work on that of other staff members. In either case it is essential that the discussion assiduously avoids degenerating to the level of gossip, personal prejudice, or derogatory generalizations. The conference must be kept on a high level of professional ethics. Ideas must be honestly expressed as a basis for making judgments. While such matters must be frankly faced, they should be treated as needing clinical rather than personal consideration. To be horrified, or perturbed, or antagonistic is not professional. To be frank, calm, and as objective as possible is the clinical approach to delicate problems in the conference situation.

9. *Both persons are responsible for continuity in conferences.* (To what previous conference discussions do we need to refer?) While each conference, in a very real sense, has its own major points of emphasis, in another sense there is a continuity from one consultation period to the next. Problems of teaching relate intimately to each other; it is in these interrelationships that continuity is achieved. Both persons, as they think together, have a responsibility to see and point out these interrelationships and to make practical suggestions for coordination. If both persons take time to recall previous discussions and see how they relate to the purposes of the present conference, greater continuity in consultation will be assured.

These general characteristics suggest that success in conference situations is a dual responsibility. Good conferring thrives in an atmosphere of mutual respect. It centers its attention on problems of common concern to both individuals. It eventuates in better ideas than either conferee alone would be able to work out. It pays its highest dividends in improved teaching.

Preparing for Conferences. In getting ready for an individual conference, there are several ways you can assure yourself that you will be well prepared. The first and most important preparation is to have thought through clearly and specifically what you want to be your contribution to the conference. What real problems do you need discussed? What questions do you have to raise? What problems or questions do you anticipate from your critic teacher or college supervisor? What significant observations and insights do you believe you should share? To clarify your own thinking—perhaps to have even put down on

paper the topics you wish to talk over—is insurance that, from your point of view, the consultation time will be well spent.

There are many types of topics centering around planning, working, and evaluating that are appropriate for discussion in the individual conference. Since the topics finally chosen depend upon your needs and concerns, you will want continuously to consider which of them are of sufficient importance to warrant conference time. Among the types of topics which concern many student teachers are these:

1. *Matters of personal effectiveness:* pitch of voice, quality of English, manuscript writing, rapport with individuals, phrasing directions or questions.
2. *Suggestions for securing materials and equipment:* reference materials, exhibits, pictures, free pamphlets, recording apparatus, finger paints, dramatic-play materials.
3. *Elaboration of the broad unit of work:* research techniques, leading discussion, subject-matter understandings, variety in activities, possible culminating activities.
4. *Problems of discipline:* living up to agreements, playground annoyances, tattling, assembly manners, time-wasting.
5. *Provisions for individual children:* visual and hearing difficulties, temper tantrums, evidences of frustration, sibling rivalry, poor motor coordination.
6. *Presentation of skill learnings:* introduction of concept of multiplication, spellings of homonyms, slow rate of reading, slant in handwriting, interpreting graphs.
7. *Use of time in the daily program:* desirable routine with flexibility, length of time for discussion, termination of sharing, transitions from work to rest, time required for clean-up, meeting scheduled appointments.

The preceding list suggests a method some student teachers have used to prepare for their conferences. They indicate not only the problem areas which they hope to discuss but also some clues as to the specific help they need within the larger area. In this way, the student teacher organizes what he feels he needs from the conference and uses his notes as a reminder. During the conference, he adds to these notes for evaluation purposes. In addition, the critic teacher gets a clearer picture of what is weighty from the student teacher's point of view and what his concerns are.

Previous to the conference it is, at times, advisable to get the help of others: the critic teacher, the principal, another student teacher, or a special teacher. These persons sometimes can supply you with information, suggestions, opinions, sources of materials, and the like which will be beneficial in clarifying your thinking or in expanding your ideas on matters that are sure to be considered in the conference situation. At still other times, a review of notes from education classes previously taken

or further reading from professional books or periodicals may be of assistance to you as you get ready for your individual conference.

The minutes spent in thoughtful preparation will be a wise use of time. Thus you are assured of being genuinely ready to talk about professional matters in a mature, direct manner.

Participating in Conferences. With preparations well made, participation in the conference should be greatly facilitated. As the conference begins, be sure that you are comfortable: your wraps have been removed; you are seated satisfactorily; you have a convenient place to write; your materials to be looked at are marked and ready for use at the right time. The psychological effect of outer wraps only partially removed, books and materials balanced precariously on a knee, and the conferee perched uncertainly as if poised for flight is not conducive to thinking together. Physical comfort releases a person to concentrate on the major business of the meeting.

There is no one way to begin the conference. Sometimes the critic teacher or college supervisor will have matters that take priority. At other times you will be expected to take the initiative and begin with items of paramount concern to you. Do not just sit and wait for the other conferee to lead you into the discussion. Be sure to size up the situation intelligently and do your share to get the conference started pleasantly and effectively.

During the conference you will undoubtedly want to jot down notes, ask questions, seek further clarification on some points, double check agreements, and, at certain times, summarize or recapitulate what has been said. Since these individual conferences are specifically set up for your development, you should feel free to participate in such ways as have just been suggested so that you can benefit fully from the discussion.

Constructive criticism of your work is to be expected during conference time. Remember that this criticism is offered in the spirit of guidance. You should weigh it realistically, in the light of your values, your estimate of the specific situation, and your personal characteristics. Criticism will not be consciously given for the purpose of stylizing or formalizing your teaching procedures. Rather, it will be offered so that you can creatively attack unsolved problems in your work as a teacher.

The mature student teacher welcomes—even seeks out—objective judgments of his work with children. When suggestions of lacks are offered, he faces up to them realistically and honestly. He avoids rationalizing his shortcomings. He does not try to cover up his weaknesses. He does not try to shift the subject to areas where he is doing satisfactorily so that he can build his prestige from another base. Since there will always be some things that the student teacher knows he does well, he should be secure and able, unemotionally, to consider the respects in which he can improve

yet more. The student teacher who cannot look squarely and clinically at his own practices is probably not ready to take over the complete responsibility of guiding children in their living and learning.

Every conference reaches a psychological conclusion. Everything that needs to be discussed has been said. Agreements have been made and responsibilities accepted. To prolong a conference beyond such a stage is anticlimactic. This is the point at which you mentally take a quick inventory of what has been said, collect your belongings, and pleasantly take your leave. Such a natural, pleasant ending leaves each conferee in a mood of anticipation of the next conference time together.

Following Through on Conferences. As soon as possible after the conference, think through, expand, and reorganize the ideas that you gained through conferring. At this point the notes jotted down during the conference should be useful to you. Some of the suggestions may affect your long-range or daily planning. Some may make a difference in your unit of work. Some may concern your ways of using procedures, your guidance of individual children, your uses of learning materials, and the like. Only as you use conferences to deepen your insight into how to teach will they show results in your teaching. Individual conferences can only project proposals which you then must adapt and implement. Rethinking the conference comments is the first step toward answering the question "What do I do next to improve my teaching?"

The major aspect of the follow-up of a conference is putting into action the agreements made. Occasionally unforeseen obstacles impede progress in meeting agreed-upon responsibilities. Sometimes the plans are, when tested in action, impracticable. At times the agreements have to be so modified that they emerge quite differently than was anticipated at the time of the conference. Some changes and adaptations are undoubtedly inevitable; they will be expected and your creative adaptations will be commended. If, on the other hand, it seems necessary to abandon the agreement, be sure to let the other conferee know this fact as soon as possible and try to set up another conference—however brief—to reconsider just what is to be done.

As you carry through on one conference, you are really preparing for the next. The following conference may well begin with a recalling of what previous suggestions you have used, a recounting of what you did with them, and appraisals of their effectiveness. For example, if it had been suggested that you use simpler reading materials with research committees, you might bring in a list of the simpler reading matter you had used with the committees. You could then explain how you guided the children toward more skillful reading for information and evaluate by telling in what ways the children had observably improved their research. As a result of such continuity, new proposals will grow out of these

experiences. In this way one conference leads naturally to the next. Planning, acting, and evaluating are thus co-mingled.

Participating in the Initial Conference. The initial conference differs from succeeding ones chiefly in that both conferees need this time to get better acquainted. During this conference you will want to be sure to indicate to your critic teacher or college supervisor enough of your background experiences, your interests and special abilities, your appraisal of your strengths and weaknesses that he can, from the beginning, give you practical guidance. Moreover, you will want to learn how your critic teacher or college supervisor will work with you, what his concepts of teaching are, and how he expects to help in inducting you into this directed teaching experience.

This initial meeting will probably set the tone for ensuing conferences. To take time to get to know each other better, to establish rapport, to build a basis for future working relations are the distinctive characteristics of the first conference situation. When one student teacher asked a friend who had already completed his student teaching how to act during the first conference, the reply came back immediately, "Just be your own best, natural self. Above all, don't try to hide your weaknesses. Act as though you want help!" That is good advice not only for the initial conference but also for all the remaining individual conferences in which you participate.

Participating in the Final Conference. There are distinctive characteristics of the final conference about which you will want to give some thought. In the first place, this conference will probably be geared to summarization, recapitulation, and evaluation of your total directed teaching experience. In other words, together you and your critic teacher or college supervisor will look back on the various aspects of your work with children in order to look ahead—beyond student teaching. You may want, furthermore, to talk over some of your future plans. You may need to discuss such matters as placement, the anticipation of problems of the first year of teaching, and, perhaps, further course work that will be valuable to you following your student-teaching experience.

Yet another item that may take a few minutes of time at this conference concerns materials, equipment, records, reports, and the like. A check to see that both conferees agree that borrowed materials have been returned, that records and reports are on file, and that equipment is in satisfactory condition is the business-like way to meet this responsibility.

The final individual conference is not a mere formality. It is a time to appraise and intellectualize your student-teaching experience. It is a time to constructively make your suggestions and recommendations concerning the program of student teaching in your college. It is the time to check on all the threads of routine matters to see that they are tied

together in a tight knot. It is the time to express—if you feel it genuinely—appreciation for the opportunities that have been afforded you.

When the final conference is over and you look back on the individual attention which you have been given in these situations, you will undoubtedly be able to get another index of your professional development. Moreover, the experience of regular, functional guidance should help you to realize more than you ever have before how teachers attack and work on their problems, how professional ideas are shared and lead to new ideas, how professional growth can be a stimulating coöperative achievement. Such conferring is, in and of itself, a practicum in professional education, the benefits of which will carry over into your first year of teaching.

THE SMALL GROUP CONFERENCE

In many ways the small group conferences for student teachers correspond to building meetings for faculties in public elementary schools. Like the most desirable type of faculty meetings, these conferences are held for the purpose of taking up, in an intimate group situation, matters of common concern and interest to all participating members. They are planned coöperatively with reference to the problems to be discussed. They are designed to stimulate critical thinking; to provide for the sharing of ideas, materials, and successful practices; to suggest creative implementation of desirable educational theory.

Small group conferences, therefore, will afford at least a three-fold opportunity for you. They will offer ideas which will be beneficial in various aspects of your day-to-day work in student teaching. They will help to deepen your insight into democratic processes of group dynamics. They will also afford you very practical means of learning how to participate effectively in teachers' meetings out in the field.

Individual and Small Group Conferences Differentiated. Successful participation in individual conferences is not necessarily insurance that one will also be effectual in small group conferences. There are sufficient differences to warrant consideration of major contrasts between the two. From such contrasts the distinguishing characteristics of the small group conference may be deduced. The following are among the chief distinctions with which you will need to be familiar:

1. Whereas the individual conference is planned to aid the student teacher directly with his own work, the small group conference is planned to help the individual through the consideration of problems and topics of import to a group of student teachers.
2. Whereas in the individual conference the student teacher interacts with one other professional guide skilled in supervising prospective teachers,

- in the small group conference the student teacher interacts both with a professional leader and with his peers.
3. Whereas the individual conference is organized more flexibly in terms of time and duration of meetings, the small group conference is regularly scheduled within a specific time framework.
 4. Whereas individual conferring is more naturally informal because of the two-way thinking between conferees, the small group conference is informal only to the extent that the entire group works sensitively to achieve this end.
 5. Whereas the individual conference makes participation mandatory, the small group conference depends upon the coöperative disposition of all its members to take part.
 6. Whereas in the individual conference the conferees tend to look inward toward the improvement of experiences for a particular group of children, in the small group conference the participants look outward toward desirable practices and procedures in teaching within a broader framework.
 7. Whereas in the individual conference the student teacher considers an individual or a group of children in relation to the specific situations in which he is involved, in the small group conference his horizons concerning these same children or other children are broadened through the observations, comments, judgments made by other student teachers.

Organizational practices will vary from institution to institution in regard to how small group conferences will be set up. In some cases all the student teachers who work with a given critic teacher will meet together. In other situations a group of student teachers—assigned to various critic teachers—will hold their meetings with a college supervisor. Still other arrangements may be made for such conferences. However, the values and purposes remain much the same under these differing organizational plans. The cross-fertilization in ideas that comes from sharing, suggesting, discussing, thinking together, and evaluating practices and procedures with one's peers is a valuable way to get assistance in pushing ahead professionally in your student teaching.

The Rôle of the Student Teacher in Small Group Conferences. If democratic group work is essential for children in the modern elementary school, it is necessary as well for teachers and prospective teachers as they work in group situations. Whenever a group of student teachers meet together to consider professional problems, they can experience the satisfactions of democratic, coöperative behavior. Through participation in a small group conference the student teacher can learn much about what makes a group "click" in its inter-personal relations, in its coöperative attack on problems, in its evaluation of progress, in its procedures for getting significant work done. Through group-conference participation one can gain many ideas to use in his own teaching. He can also give generously of his best thinking for the good of his peers. In this way the student teacher shares the rôle of leadership. He assumes responsibilities

which accompany freedom of thought and action. He thinks critically about significant professional issues, recent research, practical teaching procedures, frontier educational ideas. He acts with the sensitivity required in social situations. All this he does to the end that he knows he is assuming a democratic rôle in making the conference stimulating and beneficial to the group as a whole.

As you attend these regular conference sessions with other student teachers and your college supervisor or critic teacher, here are some questions for the appraisal of your contributions:

1. Do you help state purposes, develop plans, and pose problems for the conference?
2. Do you effectively pool and coordinate your ideas and suggestions with those of the other members of the group?
3. Do you offer to assume individual and committee responsibilities that are necessary to the success of the conference?
4. Do you help to develop a feeling of "we-ness" among group members?
5. Do you thoughtfully assume at appropriate times the rôle of follower and leader, dependent upon the quality of the contribution which you have to offer?
6. Do you act in ways that foster good group morale?
7. Do you help to give appropriate recognition to the group and to the individuals who make up the group?
8. Do you operate democratically in helping the group share resources, resolve conflicts, reach agreements, make decisions?

Many clues to your own effective participation in small group conferences will come from your guidance of children in their group work. Here is one place where the old adage, "Practice what you preach," is pertinently applicable.

Practical Suggestions for Participation in Small Group Conferences. Some very homely practices on the part of participants help to make small group conferences go well. Even to point them out may seem trite, but they make such differences in the success of the conference situation that they should not even momentarily be overlooked. To check on yourself concerning your participation as the conference progresses, here are some work-a-day suggestions of ways to be effective:

1. Sit in a face-to-face relationship with the other members of the group.
2. Choose different group members with whom to sit rather than always being with the same persons.
3. Speak clearly and distinctly so that all the group can easily hear you.
4. Gauge your amount of participation realistically in terms of the "give-and-take" of the group situation.
5. Avoid talking too long, too often, or not at all.
6. Share your comments with the group as a whole rather than as asides to your neighbor.
7. Introduce into discussions only significant ideas or pertinent questions rather than spurious problems about which you are not really concerned.

8. Make only practical suggestions in the sharing of ideas—the kind that you do use or could use yourself.
9. Cue into the idea immediately preceding your comments or clearly indicate to the group the new point of reference from which you are making your contribution.
10. Be generous in sharing sources of materials, in suggesting procedures or devices that will be helpful to your peers in their work with children.
11. Pose problems or questions that are recognizable as appropriate for group considerations rather than matters that should be reserved for the individual conference.
12. Be sure that the comments and suggestions that you make are not mere repetition—that they do help to move the group thinking ahead.
13. Introduce apt illustrations or examples when they will help to point up, punctuate, or clarify an idea.
14. Direct your contributions to the professional level of the discussion underway—avoiding under-shooting or over-shooting the level of ideas being considered.
15. Avoid belaboring a point or a point of view beyond the limits of good taste and personal effectiveness.
16. Release tensions through humor, through clarification of differences, or through identification of areas of agreement upon which to build positively.

The critic teacher or college supervisor alone cannot make a small group conference go well. He must rely on the good will, the disposition to participate, and the genuine courtesy of all the other members of the group if the conference is to eventuate in purposeful learnings and in desirable personal and professional qualities of experiences in working together.

Negative Contributors in Group Conferences. Some persons seem at times to be negative rather than positive contributors to group work. The total effect of their participation is marred or undermined by types of responses that are disintegrative or disruptive in group processes. Observers at conferences have concluded that group thinking and action are impaired by persons:

1. Who tend to be aggressive toward certain other members of the group.
2. Who try to build up their own egos by saying and doing things that they hope will make them "look good" in the eyes of the leader or the group.
3. Who try to appear superior by minimizing, destructively criticizing, or ridiculing the contributions of others.
4. Who expect special privileges or unwarranted positions of prestige.
5. Who become defensive when faced with disagreements.
6. Who go out of their way to look for slights or personal affronts.
7. Who employ compensatory behavior techniques even when constructive criticism of their ideas is offered.
8. Who consciously create cleavages within the group framework.
9. Who frequently tear down what is proposed without constructively offering alternative proposals or suggesting improvements.

10. Who verbally dismiss in a facetious manner points of view other than their own.

In small group conferences these people are impediments to progress in thinking and are defeatists with regard to morale-building. Being human, everyone at times is not his best self, is the victim of his own insecurities. Habitual negative responses, however, are a different matter. Pitfalls like those just suggested can be obviated when every participant assiduously works for wholesome group relations. This is a case where "eternal vigilance is the price of freedom" from being a negative contributor in group situations.

This discussion does not imply that, to avoid such pitfalls, one must be a bland, "do-nothing" kind of person. The student teacher who supinely acquiesces, is non-committal, or avoids coming to grips with dilemmas is also a negative contributor in a different way. The student teacher who avoids both extremes—who is sensitive to his obligation to try always to be both active and constructive in group work—is the one who makes the best participant in small group conferences.

The Clinical Discussion of Problems. When professional people must discuss personalities, they are ethical in all phases of their presentation, diagnosis, and suggestions for dealing with the problems involved. Flip-pant remarks are considered in poor taste. Gossip is taboo. Evidence is presented diagnostically and sympathetically. The reporter demonstrates through the pertinence of the evidence which he presents that he is concerned for the welfare of the individual involved.

Frequently in the small group conference it is necessary to pose problems that do directly relate to personalities. Most often these problems deal with an individual child or small groups of children with whom the student teacher is working. Sometimes parents or other teachers are involved to the point where it is necessary to relate evidence that concerns these personalities also. Such problems are within the range of possibilities for clinical consideration. But they demand discreet, dispassionate presentation.

When personality problems do come before the group in conference, they must be dealt with clinically by each participant. All pertinent evidence on the problem must be presented fairly. It must be discussed frankly. Questions raised by other group members should be answered in the light of available evidence. Personal interpretations of motivation, causation, reaction must be clearly labeled as judgments or opinions. It is unfair to go even a word beyond the data or to over-generalize on known conditions. To be clinical, one clearly says he has no evidence when that is the case.

Solutions must, then, be posed as possibilities and not as "cure-alls."

Since all human personalities are complex, the ascribing of exact motives is dangerous business. The clinical approach is to recognize that all causation is multiple, that treatment of personality difficulties cannot be lightly prescribed, that guidance may demand the help of other workers specially trained for such services.

Nor does a professional person carry confidential information beyond the confines of the group clinically considering the problem. He respects human personality so greatly that he keeps this information to himself, lest, by his careless dissemination of the facts of the case, the information gets to be "public property" and harms rather than helps the individuals involved.

Through participation in small group conferences, you can learn how to present, to discuss, and to respond to the presentation of problems that involve personalities. You can learn to be objective in looking at the problem. You can teach yourself to be trustworthy in the management of confidential information. To be clinical concerning these matters is a high type of professional responsibility.

THE LARGE GROUP CONFERENCE

In many teacher-education institutions the third type of conference which the prospective teacher attends is the large group conference. This type of regularly scheduled meeting differs in values, purposes, and organization from either the individual or small group conference. Its membership frequently runs into relatively high numbers.

Out in the field, the meetings of an entire school staff, with the superintendent presiding, are similar to these large group conferences. The kinds of topics discussed, because of the cross-section of the conference membership, are broad and general in their professional appeals. The discussions often center around matters of administrative policies, professional ethics, inspirational stimulation, educational trends, and research results.

As you attend large group conferences, you will discover that they help you to become oriented as a worker in a major profession, to expand your vision of the purposes of education in the society, to anticipate your rôle at staff meetings in your first year of teaching, as well as to get encouragement and practicable suggestions for your professional welfare.

Distinctive Features of Large Group Conferences. In order to make the most of these meetings, you will find it helpful to orient yourself as to the distinguishing characteristics of the large group conference in your college or university. Since institutional practices will vary, you will want to get answers to such questions as the following:

1. Who will attend the large group conference? Will the membership include prospective teachers at both the elementary and secondary levels?

Will student teachers from such fields of specialization as music, fine arts, home economics, industrial arts, and physical education be members of this conference group?

2. When will the large group conferences meet? Will regularly scheduled meeting times be stated, with weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly sessions?
3. What are the specific objectives of these conferences in your institution? Are they to inform prospective teachers on matters of professional ethics, administrative policies, placement procedures, and the like?
4. What topics will be discussed at these conferences? Will the topics be announced in advance or will the group learn of the day's topic at the beginning of the meeting?
5. What types of techniques for the presentation of topics will be used? Will lectures, panel discussions, group reports, demonstrations, audio-visual presentations be used?
6. What preparations for the large group conferences will one be expected to make? Will there be reports, notes on readings, evaluations to be made?
7. What follow-up activities will one be expected to carry out? What direct responsibilities growing out of these conferences will one be expected to meet?
8. What routines will be followed? How will matters of attendance, absence, procedures for participation, and the like be handled?

With the aid of guide lines from the answers to these questions, you shall be able to ascertain the distinctive contributions which the large group conference can make in your professional development.

Audience Behavior in Large Group Conferences. Whenever large groups get together, individual freedom includes a willingness to give up some personal preferences. It means being individually responsible for meeting the demands of the specific situation. It means being intelligent in adapting to the physical surroundings, the intellectual atmosphere, the social-emotional context. In large group situations, the audience makes considerable difference in what the leader, speaker, or demonstrator gives of himself to make the conference go well. If the audience is listless, inattentive, restless, or noisy, there is little incentive for the speakers to do their best. If, on the other hand, the members of the audience are alert and sympathetic and demonstrate that they are capable of profiting from and receptive to new ideas and pertinent information, speakers are willing to give generously of themselves. While conference planning may rest in the hands of a leader from the college staff, the tone of the conference situation always rests with the audience.

When a large group conference session has been particularly successful, it is helpful if you will let the leader know this fact. Moreover, he will get specific help toward further planning from your concrete statements of why you think the meeting went well. If you do not let the leader know your reactions to the content and organization of the large group meeting, you are not being responsibly democratic in your participation.

If you do not make helpful suggestions to the conference leader, you are in a poor position to be critical of the planning.

More specifically, a person who demonstrates good audience behavior in large group conference situations is one who:

1. Makes it a point to be on time.
2. Sits with the rest of the group, as near the front as possible.
3. Has his books, materials, and wraps taken care of before the meeting begins.
4. Comes to the conference prepared to seek new understandings and to get worth-while professional information.
5. Penetratingly analyzes the ideas presented.
6. Prepares himself for participation at the appropriate times.
7. Sensitively avoids causing disturbances.
8. Recognizes his part in making the audience a courteous, responsive one.

If the conference topics and the organizational procedures are known in advance, it is much easier to be prepared to be an effective member of the group. However, even when there has not been previous announcement of the content and organizational pattern to be employed, you can react intelligently by "cuing in" fast, by adapting to the specific situation. As the meeting progresses, you can alertly and astutely recognize and presume the emerging plan. You will get satisfaction from your adeptness and resourcefulness in adjusting to and making the most of the situation.

In a very real sense, team play and good sportsmanship are essential in large group conferences. The audience and the speakers must, in some way, reach each other in a spirit of mutual informality, friendliness, and good faith.

Recording and Note-taking. The types of records and notes that you will take in large group meetings may differ quite markedly from those kept in individual and small group conferences. In the first place, to appeal to the range of interests of the audience, the topics and problems will necessarily be more general in treatment. In the second place, the types of procedures employed may not be conducive to comprehensive note-taking. In the third place, if these large group conferences are held in an auditorium or assembly hall, the physical arrangements will probably not lend themselves to efficiency and comfort in taking detailed notes. What, then, can one use as guides to note-taking under these circumstances? Here are some suggestions that prospective teachers have found helpful:

1. If source materials such as books, magazine articles, or films are suggested, they jot down all the pertinent information given.
2. If particularly apt or pungent statements are made, they take down the exact phrasing, to recall the point made.
3. If solutions to problems are offered, or valuable information is given, they succinctly summarize the salient points.

4. If a new idea is presented, they get down on paper the kernel of the idea, for further creative consideration after the meeting.
5. If a practical group technique is employed, they keep a record of the steps involved.
6. If the presentation raises problems or questions in their thinking, they briefly note these, either for participation later in the meeting or for consideration—perhaps with the critic teacher or college supervisor—at the appropriate time.
7. If mimeographed material is distributed and used during the meeting, they make marginal notes and underscore, for reinforcement, particularly pertinent passages or points.

That the records you keep from large group conferences are not voluminous is no indication that you are either disinterested or incompetent. Pertinence of what is recorded is the better criterion to employ in judging the notes that you are taking during large group conferences.

Participation in Discussion and Question Periods. Frequently, in the large group conferences, time is allotted for comments, discussion, or questions from the audience. The purpose of such conference time is self-evident. It is the time in which participation by the group is not only welcomed but is also expected. Since communication in this modern world is a complex process, there is no speaker or panel of speakers who ever is able to discuss any topic or problem completely, without some possible misinterpretations. Moreover, the words of the speakers frequently arouse in the minds of the listeners ideas of their own, or different interpretations than the speakers have suggested. It is at such points as these that the members of the audience have distinctive contributions to make to their peer group. A democratic participant recognizes the obligation to pose his pertinent questions and to pool his best ideas with the other conference members.

Your preparation for question or discussion periods begins when the meeting begins. It begins when the speaker, panel, or demonstrator starts the presentation. Preparation grows out of the facts, the information, the ideas that challenge you to inquire further or to make suggestions.

At the time when questions or comments are called for by the group leader, you should have ready the thoughts that you wish to present. Of course, you will speak clearly and distinctly so that all can hear; you will be sure that what you say is of interest to the whole group; you will make your contribution directly and succinctly.

When, however, you feel your question has not been adequately answered, you should feel free, courteously, to say so. Ask for amplification, elaboration, examples, or illustrations. When, on the other hand, members of the audience indicate that your comment or suggestion has not been clearly understood, employ another approach that promises to

clarify your thought. If the point is sufficiently important to make, it is equally important that the answers or comments should be satisfactory and satisfying to you. Otherwise this portion of the conference period will have lost its value—will be anticlimactic and a waste of time.

Discriminative Listening. At the crux of participation in conferences is communication at the verbal level. This implies the need for the student teacher to be sure that he has developed habits of discriminative listening. Ultimately much of what the student teacher gains depends upon his abilities to get new meanings and insights from the combination of listening and direct teaching experiences. If this interrelationship is not well established, conferences bog down—they do not achieve what they were designed to accomplish.

At this point, certain distinctions between hearing and listening should be recognized. Listening, to be sure, includes hearing but is more than just hearing. Sometimes listening is impaired by hearing loss. Sometimes emotional problems intrude so that hearing is not effective. Then, too, inattentive or disrupted hearing under otherwise normal conditions may result in distorted ideas of what is being said.

Genuine listening is active. It involves four major components. The first includes the sheer physiological equipment for hearing. The second has to do with readiness for listening that grows out of conscious purposing. The third component is the interrelating of the hearing with understanding and thinking about what is being said. The fourth includes the emotional overtones of feeling which accompany the hearing and the meanings involved. Thus one sees that discriminative listening is complex. It involves reactions of the total organism. This suggests how imperative it is to give attention to one's own listening habits if he is to make the most of conference situations.

Discriminative listening involves analysis, judgment, evaluation. Some people are easy prey to oral persuasion. They have not developed resistance to unwarranted emotional appeals, to warped or misrepresentative evidence, or to the use of opinion for fact. The discriminative listener, on the other hand, is not easily swayed by emotionalism. He analyzes evidence. He scrutinizes carefully the conclusions drawn from the evidence. He is wary of over-generalizations and over-simplifications which are not properly labeled as such. He is quick to sift out opinions that are presented as facts. He tries to understand the biases of the speaker and interpret what is said in terms of the speaker's preferences. He does not close his mind to listening to persons who differ from him in point of view. He is neither defensive, nor over-critical, nor over-protective of his own position. He tries, rather, to see wherein those differences lie and he uses them to broaden and sharpen his own thinking.

The discriminative listener realizes that, in the conference, there is one

very strategic difference between reading and listening. He understands the transiency of the spoken word so well that he is constantly alert to catch the pivotal ideas around which the oral expression of these ideas revolves. He knows that his only means of checking on the facts, information, and thoughts of the speaker is by further oral expression on his part—through questioning and discussing. In order to keep track of the point from which the speaker starts, his line of reasoning, and the means he employs to reach his conclusions, the discriminative listener frequently employs notes, outlines, sketches, or rough diagrams. In this way he can keep tab on the speaker's thinking and thus evaluate more astutely what otherwise might be lost in a multiplicity of words.

Yet another approach used by the discriminative listener is the analysis of the types of appeals utilized, the devices and techniques employed. He is quick to uncover innuendos, insinuations, prejudices, allegiances. He senses when the speaker is skewing ideas in one definite direction. He does not readily acquiesce to "either-or" thinking. He evaluates ridicule critically. He appraises thoughtfully such other devices of speaking as name-calling, metaphorical phrasings, slogans, clichés, snap judgments, false erudition, and unsubstantiated generalities.

The keynotes of discrimination in listening are a questioning attitude and an inquiring intelligence. These entail constant evaluation of both content and performance. As you participate in conferences, you will have many valuable opportunities to develop discerning habits of listening, which are well worth developing as a distinct professional asset of the teacher.

Language in Action in Conference Situations. When conferences are successful, the participants come away from the conferring with clear understandings, new concepts, deepened insights, changed attitudes. Conferring necessarily calls for communication, and communication among human beings is largely carried on through the medium of language. Communicating through language is based on using words according to agreed-upon meanings. But words can convey meanings only as people can agree about the idea that the words symbolize. In conference situations, if the conferees do not communicate clearly to each other, confusion and misdirection can result. If words stand in the way of ideas, and thus hamper communication, conference time is ill-spent.

Language does affect behavior. Some spoken words touch the heart-strings; some arouse anger. Others create tensions, bring disappointments. Still others fill the hearer with pride, motivate him to be up and doing. When words in context are coupled with gestures, posture, facial expressions, and tonal qualities, they become a powerful medium for influencing individuals' actions and reactions. Professional relations,

attitudes, and understandings are, in large measure, dependent on and conditioned by language. This is particularly true in conference situations.

As you participate in all types of conferences, learn to be aware of how people use and misuse language. Study how words convey meanings for the purpose of the clear, accurate expression of thoughts and of the more exact, meaningful interpretation of ideas through the use of spoken language patterns. Only through such cognizance of how words are manipulated by speakers will you be able to get personal meanings from the meanings which others think they are conveying to you. Only as you learn to understand your own use of language patterns will you be sensitive to the meanings which you are conveying in the two-way process of verbal communication.

In the process of communication, complexities arise in conveying ideas from one person to another. Every word that one speaks or hears appears in an over-all context which is complex. Moreover, within the over-all context, the word is used in a number of contextual relations. The word is in a verbal context—surrounded by other words. The word is in a physical context, which consists of surroundings of the speaker and hearer at the time the word is used. The word is in a psychological context, which consists of the backgrounds of experience from which the meaning attached to the word emerges. The word is in an emotional context, which arouses strong or weak feelings, constructive or negative attitudes, heat as well as light. Thus, it is never safe to presume that any word has any one meaning out of context. It is dangerous to think that a word has a meaning. Every word has multiple meanings. It can be used referentially or metaphorically. It can be used constructively for accurate communication or it can be negatively misused.

Guides for Language in Action. While language patterns are always complex, there are some guides that can be pointed out to make you more aware of how language patterns operate in conference situations. While there is always an "et cetera" on this topic, some suggestions to help you understand how language is operating in your conference situations can be made:

1. Remember that no one is ever able to say all that might be said on any subject or problem.
2. Know that a word is only a symbol that stands for something in the world of reality.
3. Watch loose uses of abstract words: democracy, duty, patriotism, rightness, and the like.
4. Recognize that few, if any, problems are "either-or" in their solutions.
5. Identify the difference between facts on the one hand and inferences or opinions on the other.
6. Notice that, since speakers select and control words, they have intent to influence others with words as they talk.

7. Spot shifts from the referential use of language (the conveyance of facts or talking about things dispassionately) to the emotive use of language (the arousing of emotional feeling in others).
8. Observe the degree to which the emotive uses of language facilitate or interfere with the referential.
9. Note that definitions are frequently abstract. Often, for meaning, one must go to an *experiential context* (concrete, related experience).
10. Remember that in various contexts the same word has different meanings. Every person has his own unique way of manipulating words.
11. Distinguish between what in the facts of reality "is" and what only "seems to be." This entails a particular sensitivity to the uses of the words *is* and *are*, *was* and *were*.
12. Notice when and how speakers use metaphorical language. Good metaphor expands the *idea* referentially expressed and leads the hearer to more complete understanding of the idea.
13. Develop sensitivity to uses of name-calling, stereotypes, and fictions.
14. Remember that ideas are fully communicated only as speaker and listener recall comparable experiences, attach similar meanings to the verbal symbols used, and gauge the implied meanings to the purposes for which the words are being utilized.

Full, free, and accurate communication is imperative if consultation is to succeed. In a very real sense, language affects the social context of conferring. Through language, as one man looks into the mind of another, interaction between men is made possible. The wise use of verbalization in conference situations, then, sets the level of counseling. Only when communication eventuates in more mature professional understandings, attitudes, and actions on the part of the student teacher has the conference become a vehicle for the high type of guidance which it is intended to be.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

You will, of course, regularly make thoughtful appraisals of your participation in individual and group conferences. In this way you will more quickly learn, operationally, the ingredients of a good conference. Also, through the realization of your own potentialities for successful conferring, you will grow more rapidly in making the most of every conference situation. Here are some criteria to help you study yourself as a conferee.

1. *Your Consideration of Conference Characteristics:*

Which of the characteristics suggested in this chapter seem most difficult to achieve? Why? Are there any of these characteristics which you would delete? Are there additions? If so, how would you word them? In what ways have your individual conferences best met these characteristics?

2. *Your Participation in Individual Conferences:*

In what ways have you been most effective during the conferences? How are your notes from conferences improving? What are your specific strengths in

following through on conference suggestions? Wherein do you need help from your critic teacher or college supervisor to make the individual conference even better than it now is?

3. *Your Participation in Small Group Conferences:*

In what ways have you contributed effectively in small group conferences? Wherein do you now see that you can improve your participation? What, specifically, have been the most fruitful ideas gained to date from the small group conferences? How have you grown in your ability to discuss problems clinically and professionally?

4. *Your Participation in Large Group Conferences:*

How have large group conferences been most beneficial to you? Least beneficial? In what ways have you improved as an active participant in large group conferences? In note-taking? In contributing to acceptable audience behavior? What have you done, specifically, to develop habits of discriminative listening?

5. *Your General Consideration of Conferences:*

In general, what have been your most valuable conference experiences? Why so? What questions and problems concerning conferences are uppermost in your thinking at the present time? How do you plan to get help on these questions and problems? In what ways do you expect your conference experiences to help prepare you for your first year of teaching?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. The individual conference is said to give the student teacher "three looks in one"—a backward look, a forward look, and an overview. Why is each valuable? How are they all interrelated?
2. What does "criticism" mean? How does it differ from "censure?" From "being called on the carpet?" Under what conditions is criticism constructive?
3. "Like cake making, a good group conference must first have the proper ingredients, but it also depends upon the proper mixing," wrote one student teacher. What do you consider the best "conference ingredients?" What are the ways to achieve "proper mixing" in the group situation?
4. In what ways is leadership shared in group conferences? How does the audience take on a leadership rôle?
5. "Stop, look, and listen" is a slogan that can be applied to group conference situations as well as to safety on highways. In what ways does it apply to audience behavior? To discriminative listening? To the language patterns employed by the speakers?
6. Recall a person to whom you listened attentively. What were the qualities of his speaking that kept you listening? What techniques did he effectively employ to make his points?
7. "Question periods never go very well," complained one student group leader. Why is this sometimes the case? What are your suggestions for improving question periods?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Process in Supervision* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1948).

This booklet emphasizes the necessity for democratic processes in all phases of educational endeavor. That portion of the booklet which explains how effective group work is achieved—pages 20 through 63—will be provocative reading for you.

BARR, A. S., BURTON, William H., and BRUECKNER, Leo J., *Supervision*, 2nd Ed. (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1947).

On pages 738 through 743 some of the essential elements of successful individual conferences are succinctly stated.

BOARDMAN, Charles W., and CARLSON, William S., *Student Teacher's Handbook* (Minneapolis, Burgess Publishing Company, 1941).

"How the Student Can Make the Conference Effective" is the title of Chapter III in this book. You will find specific suggestions for participating in individual and group conferences herein.

CROW, Lester D., and CROW, Alice, *Introduction to Education* (Cincinnati, American Book Company, 1947).

Chapter X, entitled "Effective School Administration and Supervision," will be helpful in giving you an overview of the use of conferences in public schools.

GARLAND, J. V., and PHILLIPS, Charles F., *Discussion Methods Explained and Illustrated* (New York, The H. W. Wilson Company, 1940).

Concise, well-organized information concerning informal group discussion will be found on pages 17 through 37 of this book.

Guidance Staff of National Forum Inc., *Toward Adult Living* (Chicago, National Forum Inc., 1946).

This book will make you cognizant of some of the ways one acts maturely in understanding other people. In relation to participation in conferences, you will find the first forty-seven pages particularly pertinent.

LEE, Irving J., *Language Habits in Human Affairs* (New York, Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1941).

Since communication through verbal symbols is so significant in conferences, this readable book on semantics will help you understand how to use and interpret language more meaningfully.

LEWIN, Kurt, "The Dynamics of Group Action," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 1 (January, 1944), pp. 195-200.

This article states clearly that group action can be democratic and at the same time efficient. This concept is basic in conference situations.

RICE, Theodore, "Leadership through Group Dynamics," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 43 (May, 1949), pp. 31-2.

In this short article, the writer points out general procedures through which all conference members can assume shared leadership responsibilities in democratic group processes.

SIEFFIELD, Alfred Dwight, *Creative Discussion* (New York, Association Press, 1933).

Section titles such as "Discussing to Get Somewhere," "Conference, Not Debate, the Method," and "The Group as a Clinic for 'Mind Sets'" indicate the approach to acceptable practices in conferring which this pamphlet presents.

WALSER, Frank, *The Art of Conference* (New York, Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1933).

This entire volume is devoted to an overview of conferring in modern living. It is a comprehensive, stimulating treatment of the conference, which emphasizes its educative potentialities in all types of group situations.

CHAPTER XIV

Completing Your Work

Your student-teaching experience has been an opportunity, a responsibility, and a challenge. How have you made the most of the opportunity? How completely have you accepted and carried the responsibility? How adequately have you met the challenge? Week by week, as you have looked back over your activities, you have found evidence bearing upon these questions. Now, near the end of your work, it is appropriate to look at the total experience while you may secure the coöperative judgments of others who are interested in your professional welfare and improvement. Through consistent effort in your teaching, you have led the critic teacher and the children to expect certain things of you. How are you planning to conclude your student-teaching activities? You made a good start; you have carried your work according to plan. That you finish well is important to the children, to the critic teacher and other interested persons as well as to you.

THE NATURE OF SUCCESSFUL TEACHING

Just as you have worked with children, planning and carrying through experiences, appraising the work as it progressed, and reaching conclusions as each job was done, so this book has been planned. Generalizations are arrived at through experience, as conclusions are reached and tested, rather than accepted at the outset as truths to be received without question, and possibly without understanding. In this book successive chapters have been presented to guide you in various phases of your work. At this time, as you approach the end of your student teaching, there needs to be a pulling together—a reorganization of your experiences—to acquire increasingly useful meanings from your student teaching. These sections, then, are to help you to intellectualize your experiences and reach generalizations for guiding your future work.

Elements of Professional Competence for Teaching. Teaching is an art. The ability to interact with people in such ways that desirable changes occur in their behavior; the ability to encourage habits of thinking which tend to make the changed behavior permanent; the ability to guide behavior of people in such ways that their goals are achieved and higher

goals set: these are among the abilities possessed by teachers who are successful in their art. As you have learned, such work is intensely human. It should not be entrusted to individuals who have no real love of teaching nor to those lacking qualities necessary for artistic guidance of children. The challenges of the work point the need for able, competent persons.

Competence may be defined as adequacy, fitness, capability. In teaching, one of the most demanding professions, general competence is so inclusive that, to consider it effectively, one needs to analyze its inter-related elements. As you seek to answer for yourself the question, "What kind of professional person am I trying to become?" the following attributes of the artist-teacher are offered for your consideration:

1. *A democratic social and professional outlook.* (Are you consistently democratic in your interpretation of the social order and in your conception of the teacher's rôle in social change?) Liberal education is the cornerstone of the democratic way of living. The competent teacher believes in a democratic society; holds that philosophy so strongly that it continuously functions in his teaching; strives to contribute to the improvement of group living through liberation of the individual to develop his potentialities within the social frame of reference. The democratic teacher not only intellectually accepts democracy but strives to live it himself in his professional and personal life. He genuinely respects differences of opinion within the democratic framework, not only among the children but also among his fellow workers. He operates in such ways that others achieve greater appreciation of the democratic social order and increase their contributions to it.

2. *Sympathetic insight into child growth and development.* (Do you understand the physiological, psychological, and sociological aspects of behavior and appreciate their interrelationships?) Child development as a total process is a major responsibility of the elementary school. The mature teacher sees processes of learning and extent of achievement as dependent upon related factors of growth. He strives to achieve balanced development rather than to emphasize one factor such as academic achievement or musical skill to the neglect or detriment of others. He is aware of the potentialities as well as of the limitations of education as a means of modifying child behavior and development.

3. *Useful scholarship and experience.* (Have you acquired a broad background of knowledge and related experience?) Functional knowledge and appreciation of wisdom are basic elements of liberal education. The intelligent teacher has developed a breadth of knowledge, has lived in such ways that experience has tempered his scholarship with wisdom. He eschews the leader-follower definition of scholarship in which the teacher merely presents what another has selected and for which average scholarship is more than sufficient. Rather, he accepts the functional concept of scholarship in which the teacher is recognized as an artist and acknowledged as a largely self-directive professional worker.

4. *A workable understanding of theories of learning.* (Are you familiar with the major interpretations of the learning process and the implications of each for teaching?) Comprehension of the nature of learning is one of the founda-

the drive to act without external pressure, courage in the face of obstacles, energy to carry through a planned program to its objectives. He eliminates prejudice, controls undue fear, and faces reality squarely. His contagious forcefulness inspires others to put forth their best efforts in rising to the challenges of changing situations.

10. *Suitable powers of communication.* (Can you adequately convey ideas in oral and written form, coordinate vocal qualities and bodily movements with spoken thoughts, and use other media of expression such as drawing, singing, dancing, games?) Skills effective in expressing ideas and transferring information are essential tools in reaching the goals of teaching. The proficient teacher is accomplished in using the various media of communication, in helping others achieve understanding, and in teaching the skills of communication. He understands the relationships between experience, ideas, and symbols; the power of the written word; the rôle of tone and gesture in supporting speech. He uses many avenues to reach understanding: analogies, anecdotes, examples, gestures, illustrations, problems. He builds children's abilities in the fundamental skills of securing and exchanging ideas, security in the use of their skills, and interest in exploring other media of expression such as the *fine arts, the practical arts, and play activities.*

11. *Consistent application of reflective thinking to the solution of problems.* (Have you developed the ability to face problems by finding and using new meanings from your past experiences?) The disposition to consider fairly all factors involved in a problem and to encourage open-minded enquiry is essential to a free society and to democratic education. The liberation of intelligence—in contrast to indoctrination—means the elimination of anger, bias, insecurity, jealousy, suspicion in locating and examining data on all aspects of a problem, whether that problem be academic, economic, political, or ethical. The capable teacher utilizes reflective thinking in planning means for solving problems and appraising results. He recognizes the techniques by which opinion is influenced and guided; appraises what he sees, hears, and reads; separates propaganda from fact; selects and organizes data into proof; reaches tested conclusions. He applies effective methods of functional guidance in aiding others to think clearly and to reorganize their values.

12. *Responsible attitudes toward teaching as a profession.* (Do you conceive of teaching as a way of living and accept the challenge of making a personal contribution to society through teaching?) Education is of central importance in transmitting the cultural heritage and in enriching civilized human life. The successful teacher represents the ideals of the profession in his own work and in his additional contributions of service to school and community. He has an active concern for the increased recognition of the school as a fundamentally necessary social institution. He faces his work wholesomely, not as a task or a mere job, but as a worthy enterprise. He analyzes his fitness, capitalizes on strengths while he seeks to eliminate weaknesses. He seeks broad understanding of his chosen field but remains sensitive to its relationships with other fields. He strives to use his knowledge by the best means to the best ends.

Implications of the Elements of Competence. All teaching is guidance. Each of the elements of competence reflects some phase of the teacher's rôle as a guide. Collectively they emphasize the central importance of the idea that masterful teaching results neither from a subject nor from a

what techniques he will use; how he will interpret method; how he will build effective professional relationships. It often appears easy to acquire from books and courses what seems to be genuine understanding of all the functions of teaching. Later, when the student teacher is directly involved in the complexity of the whole teaching-learning situation, he may find that these learnings are unorganized for functional use.

As you have learned to interrelate the specifics of teaching, you have grown in your ability to provide a setting in which children can have integrated experiences. You have become more resourceful in adapting yourself to the varied social relationships and more effective in carrying out the teacher's different tasks. Readiness to teach may be determined to the extent that achievements in professional competence are evidenced at the operational level.

Determining the Competence of a Professional Person. At the operational level, every factor of competence, though complex, can be analyzed for evaluative purposes. In working toward balanced development as professional persons, student teachers frequently ask the question, "How does one know that he is achieving the teaching competence of a professional person?"

One of the elements of competence about which student teachers have continuing concerns is the development of appropriate leadership and followership abilities. They realize that the teacher's relationships are complex. In addition to continued close association with the children and important contacts with fellow staff members, the teacher has a variety of relationships with parents, boards-of-education members, social workers, and community members of various vocations. Obviously, these relationships require tact and good judgment in working with others.

One group of student teachers talked out together how this element of teaching competence might be analyzed. They realized that there were four ways in which the analysis could be made: by the individual student teacher; by the critic teacher or college supervisor; by experts who have familiarized themselves with the particular situation; or by coöperative groups of the above people. This group decided to make their analysis of appropriate leadership and followership abilities coöperatively. In their analysis they followed the steps in evaluation stated in a previous chapter. Here is the result of their coöperative work:

1. *State the objective.* (What am I trying to achieve?)

The objective stated: "The possession of appropriate leadership and followership abilities."

Appropriate leadership means the ability to accept responsibilities of leading groups of children, fellow teachers or student teachers, other adults in various projects.

Appropriate followership means the ability to accept the rôle of a responsible member of groups of different ages and occupations, to support the selected

leader in carrying on the work of the group, to perform assigned shares of the group work satisfactorily.

2. *Define the objective in terms of behavior which would indicate progress.* (What kinds of actions and responses am I looking for?)

As a leader: Accepts the position gracefully rather than eagerly. Presides with poise. Gives fair hearing to all suggestions. Encourages contributions of ideas by group members. Offers suggestions when appropriate. Tactfully guides discussion toward the central purpose of the group. Achieves majority agreement with satisfactory adjustments for the minority.

As a follower: Accepts full share of responsibility for carrying out the purposes of the group. Offers suggestions. Listens courteously to ideas of others. Moves toward practical conclusions. Open-mindedly considers alternative proposals. Accepts majority decision. Gets work to do because he reliably, coöperatively fulfills obligations.

3. *Identify situations in which the behavior may occur.* (Where may I observe the actions and responses?)

As a leader: Confering with individual children and with small groups. Presiding in group discussions. Planning with and for children. Proposing topics for study and guiding work on them. Arranging and conducting trips. Appraising children's progress. Arranging special programs. Serving as chairman of a committee or subcommittee.

As a follower: Agreeing to and supporting a strong interest of the classroom group. Planning and confering with the critic teacher. Serving on a faculty or student committee or sub-committee. Assisting in preparation of a program.

4. *Collect evidence of the behavior in appropriate situations.* (How may I observe, gather, and make records of the outward signs of actions and responses?)

As a leader: Notes on conferences with children. Notes describing group discussions. Anecdotal records of children's actions. Samples of plans made, and modifications. Data showing variety and extent of work on the topic finally chosen. Diary of trips taken. Data used in appraising children's progress. Reports of programs arranged. Minutes of meetings in which service was rendered.

As a follower: Diary or log of discussions. Notes taken during conferences with the critic teacher. Minutes of committees. Reports of the types of service. Summaries of the share taken in preparing programs.

5. *Interpret the evidence in terms of the objective.* (What do these outward signs tell me?)

As a leader: How frequently were conferences held with children? Did the children reach agreements readily and carry out decisions? Did group discussions widen the area of consideration, remain related to the main problem, move to common agreement, result in workable understandings and worth while activities? What were the reactions of the critic teacher and the children to the various topics suggested as suitable for study? How successful were the trips in terms of accepted criteria? How adequate were the data for appraising the progress of the children?

As a follower: What are the opinions of the critic teacher and other competent observers regarding the followership of children's ideas? Of what nature are the notes on suggestions and corrections by the critic teacher with reference to teaching plans and other matters? How adequately have the critic teacher's suggestions been carried out? Was a proportionate share of the load carried

in preparing programs and in other work of committees in which membership was held?

6. *Modify practices on the basis of the appraisal.* (What should I be doing differently and how should I change?)

As a leader: In what ways have the classroom manner and methods of teaching been changed since the beginning of student teaching? In reference to conferring with individual children? Guiding group discussion? Planning with and for children? Conducting trips? Appraising progress? Preparing and presenting school programs? Et cetera? In what ways is further change needed? What growth has there been in independent judgment—self-analysis and self-direction?

As a follower: What increase has there been in agreements with children's ideas and suggestions? In support given children's purposes? In the expression of interests and purposes by the children? In what ways have there been changes in conferences with the critic teacher? In acceptance of responsibility for thinking through suggestions and carrying out instructions? What changes have occurred in the ways by which committee membership is acquired? In the nature of the assignment of duties? In the efficiency with which the share of committee work is carried out? What developments have occurred in the frequency and nature of suggestions made for group action? With regard to the ways in which such suggestions are received?

The type of analysis which this group of student teachers carried on for operationally analyzing their achievement of appropriate professional leadership and followership abilities can, obviously, be used with the other elements of competence. While this analysis may appear involved and laborious, it is not as tedious as it seems. Actually, these steps are taken in simple and abbreviated form by every student teacher who realistically judges his own work. Your critic teacher or college supervisor, facing the necessity of reaching some decision concerning the growth and effectiveness of your personality as a teacher, also goes through a similar thinking process.

Determining Competence in Achieving School Objectives. The central aim of those who teach is the promotion of learning. Professional competence is directly associated with that aim in a cause-and-effect relationship. That is, the kind of person the teacher is, what the teacher does, and the way he does it largely determine the quality of learning achieved by those under his guidance. Only as teachers are increasingly able to understand this cause-and-effect relationship can they develop professional competence in the specific operations involved in teaching. Specialized subject-matter materials and methods become professionalized in education, as in other fields, only as practitioners recognize causes and consequences of definite procedures, and can select and use appropriate procedures to meet certain needs and to achieve certain goals.

As you approach the conclusion of your student teaching, it becomes increasingly pertinent to ask, "How competent am I in achieving the purposes of the school? In meeting the needs of the children?" The

progress made by the children toward the objectives accepted by the school indicates your competence in an operational sense—in carrying on effectively the specific details of the teacher's work. A more direct way to consider your competence in achieving results with children is to ask, "Have I worked in such ways as to cause desirable differences in children?" To answer this question thoroughly you would list the major goals of the school and, for each, go through the successive stages of appraisal.

One of the Cardinal Objectives of Elementary Education is "To help every child gain command of common integrating knowledge and skill." Every modern elementary school recognizes the importance of this objective. The following is a suggestive discussion involving the several stages of analysis of work toward achieving this goal:

1. *The objective stated: "To help every child gain command of common integrating knowledge and skill."* This goal includes social understandings basic to balanced personality and successful adjustment with others; knowledge necessary to the carrying on of activities normal for children of the ages being considered; and the fundamental skills of the "Three R's" essential in daily living.

2. *The objective defined in terms of behavior which would indicate progress.* Progress toward this goal may be indicated by all behavior in which children speak, read silently or orally, write, use the four fundamental operations in arithmetic in applying these and similar skills and knowledges to problems.

3. *Situations identified in which the defined behavior may occur.* There are many situations, of course, in which children may act in such ways as to show their progress in the fundamental skills. They talk with each other, with you, the critic teacher, and other adults on the playground, in corridors and classrooms, and wherever they work and play without artificial stimulation or repression. Handwriting is used, and spelling becomes important, in preparing reports, taking notes, recording news, writing letters, and for many other purposes. Reading is extensively used: silent reading in securing information and in seeking relaxation and recreation; oral reading in presenting reports of various kinds and in sharing parts of enjoyed stories. The arithmetic skills are evidenced in the skills period, are used in working on other curriculum experiences, and are employed in solving out-of-school problems. Knowledge from the social studies and science is acquired and used in connection with broad units, correlations, or separate study of various subjects; in connection with individual special interests or all-school activities.

4. *Evidence collected on the behavior in appropriate situations.* As you will remember, evidence on the achievement and use of knowledge and skills may be collected by a variety of techniques: standardized tests, teacher-made tests, observational notes, anecdotal records, samples of children's work. You will have collected evidence continually as you have worked with the children. You are now reviewing the evidence as you prepare to bring to a close the various teaching activities.

5. *Evidence interpreted in terms of the objective.* You have determined some of the most noticeable changes in the children's behavior—their use of the common integrating knowledge and skills—by comparing evidence taken near the beginning and during later periods of your student teaching. You have

charted individual and group achievements. In examining the data, you have asked such questions as these: Have the children improved in their abilities to read silently with ease? Have they made progress in speed of reading? Do they read with increased comprehension? Is oral reading performed with greater poise and self-possession? Are the children spelling with greater accuracy words in their normal vocabulary? Do they write with increased legibility? Is their written expression more fluent, better organized? Is improvement being made in acceptable English usage? In speaking, is there increasing freedom from gross errors? Is there better choice of words? Is there clearer enunciation? What improvement have the children made in their abilities to use the fundamental arithmetical operations; in knowing when to use each; in analyzing and solving problems? What progress has been made in acquiring and using social understandings, science and health knowledge, and so on?

6. *Practices modified on the basis of appraisal.* As a result of your appraisals during student teaching, you have, of course, continually modified your practices. Operationally, these changes range from alteration of long-range plans and shifts in daily time-schedules to more careful selections of learning materials and experiences. Your personal characteristics as a teacher and your insight in handling subject matter with the children have necessarily received a considerable portion of your attention in modifying your methods of teaching. As you teach the end of your student teaching, your plans for modifying your practices in teaching must be projected toward your first year as a regular teacher. In terms of the success with which you have effected desirable changes in the children during the period of your work with them, you determine your achievement of competence as a teacher.

Here again it can be said that each of the Cardinal Objectives of Elementary Education or each of the particular aims of your school can be subjected to a similar analysis. You would follow the steps outlined above, securing the data appropriate to your work on the objective being considered. In too many elementary schools there is still the unfortunate tendency to appraise teachers solely or primarily on the basis of scores which children make on subject-matter achievement tests rather than on the performance of the children at the operational level. Then, too, these practices tend to exclude consideration of the teacher's competence in guiding children toward personal adjustment, emotional balance, and the larger goals of social understandings and effectiveness. Since your school is really a social laboratory in which children learn to live and work with others, appraisal must be directed squarely to such broad aims. This "living-and-learning" emphasis clearly indicates the rôle of the teacher in helping children toward increasingly mature use of common integrating knowledge and skill. Furthermore, evidence of operational competence of the teacher, including teaching for skills, must be related to the total development of the child. Feelings of security, ideas with understanding, and purpose-sharing attitudes are basic even to improvement of the tool skills of learning. In other words, appraisal of children's progress must be in balanced perspective.

TAKING INVENTORY OF YOUR OWN GROWTH

As a student teacher, you are concerned with achieving the goals of education and the particular purposes of the school, and with continuing your own personal improvement. At this time, however, you are especially concerned with your own growth in professional attributes. Your student teaching has not been an occasion for you to teach as you were taught in the elementary school. Instead, it has been a time to apply new learnings. Naturally, you wish it to have been a growth experience—although brief in time—similar to that of the successful teacher with twenty-one years of continuously richer experience, rather than a mere practice period like that of the person who had one year of teaching repeated twenty times!

Aspects of Work to be Inventoried. Your consideration of the elements of competence in teaching has indicated the general emphases in an inventory of your growth. Within the fact that student teaching has been a new and different experience, your teaching activities have been relatively similar from day to day. Thus changes in your teaching have occurred slowly and, to you, perhaps rather imperceptibly. While you have gained in breadth of interest, depth of understanding, and power of expression, the specific aspects of your growth have been changing at irregular rates. At this time you will want to consolidate previous self-evaluations and obtain a more complete picture of yourself as a teacher.

This list suggests aspects of your work that you will wish to include in your inventory:

1. Orienting yourself to the ongoing program of the school
2. Planning for and with children
3. Organizing room, equipment, and materials
4. Managing activities with reference to time and conditions
5. Initiating and guiding learning activities
6. Studying individual children
7. Guiding and counseling individuals and groups
8. Making and using records and reports
9. Evaluating the work of children
10. Cooperating with the critic teacher and other staff members
11. Taking part in whole-school enterprises
12. Attending and participating in professional meetings
13. Using opportunities for community experiences
14. Developing and following a planned program of self-improvement.

Characteristics of a Useful Inventory. You have been adding to your experiences in many new ways during your student teaching. How much have you grown and what have been the directions of your growth? The answers to these questions are the results of many variable factors interacting with your own personality. Since each new experience changes

one's organization of attitudes, values, and abilities, the total personality changes and develops continuously as experiences pyramid. The nature of your personality and the character of your experiences determine whether the changes are positive or negative, great or small. Since there are distinctive differences in personalities, no two student teachers should expect, in taking inventory of their growth, to emphasize items in exactly the same way or to arrive at precisely the same conclusions. Thus, to achieve a broad perspective of your growth through student teaching at the operational level, you will be certain to consider five major aspects of development: personal characteristics, professional purposes, plans for achieving purposes, practices in the various teaching functions, and results attained.

To be most useful to you in studying the various factors involved in your present competence, your inventory should be worked out so that it shows:

1. *Accuracy with simplicity.* While presenting a clear picture of your growth and particular strengths, your inventory should avoid the use of complicated formulas or confusing terms.
2. *Comprehensiveness with specificity.* Your inventory should provide for total, over-all judgments of your growth and competence but should also include illustrations and examples in support of generalizations.
3. *Understanding with impartiality.* The particular problems of the teaching situation should be explained in interpretative, discerning terms. With such explanations there is obligation to present fair, honest, objective appraisals of your effectiveness in the situations.
4. *Cooperativeness with directness.* A useful inventory coordinates your judgments with those with whom you have worked, especially the critic teacher and the children. This assistance should result in specific suggestions and should avoid meaningless compromises of judgment.
5. *Selectivity with balance.* Since no inventory of practical length can include all items, choices must be made of what to use. To be useful as a reliable source of judgment, the inventory should contain the most significant material from the standpoint of the work you have done and the position you have filled.
6. *Tentativeness with diagnosis.* Since appraisals of human behavior are always experimental and approximate, the inventory should not be considered a final judgment. It should indicate probable causes of strengths and weaknesses and suggest ways toward continued self-improvement.

Means for Taking Inventory. Your growth in many aspects of competence cannot be measured. The intangible elements of teacher personality can best be appraised through critical analysis of descriptive evidence from specific situations. A number of means have been suggested, in various sections of this volume, for collecting and analyzing that evidence. You have been doing that for yourself throughout your student teaching as you worked to improve. The honest use of many guides, particularly

criteria for self-evaluation and the suggestions of your critic teacher or college supervisor, have given you means for constructive judgments of the quality of your work. It is difficult, however, for anyone to gain an impartial view of his own progress, particularly in regard to the intangibles of personality.

Dynamic relationships between those working together constitute a powerful determinant of success in student teaching. Many factors, both tangible and intangible, influence those relationships. The influence of these factors is difficult to appraise. However, the judgment of competent observers is, at present, the most reliable single means for inventorying and appraising teaching. A variety of check lists, observation forms, rating scales, and questionnaires are used to record information about effective teaching. You will find it helpful to examine instruments of each type as you work toward a comprehensive judgment of your own growth. To round out your means for taking inventory of your progress, examples of several widely-used techniques are included here.

A Questionnaire for Children. You will not wonder at the suggestion that children may be competent observers. The judgments of children are not to be lightly discarded, especially when they are honestly and fearlessly expressed. Just as you share in appraising their growth, so may the children help you. With younger children, questions may be asked directly, or your critic teacher may ask the children for you. With older children, an anonymous questionnaire may be practical if its purpose is carefully explained. The questionnaire below is an adaptation of one used by a student teacher with a group of children in a sixth grade. It may serve as a sample of what you may develop for use with the children whom you are teaching.

What Do You Think of Your Teacher?

1. Do you think that I have treated you with respect? .. Yes_____ No_____
2. Do you think I have been fair to everyone?..... Yes_____ No_____
3. Do I give you enough help with your work?..... Yes_____ No_____
4. Do you think I expected or asked too much of you?.. Yes_____ No_____
5. Did I use words that were too big, words that you did not understand?..... Yes_____ No_____
6. Do you think that I do too much of the talking in group work?..... Yes_____ No_____
7. Do you think I ever bluffed you or the group to cover up my not knowing something?..... Yes_____ No_____
8. Do you think that I can laugh at myself when the joke is on me?..... Yes_____ No_____

9. Do you think of me as a person you want to have as a teacher? Yes_____ No_____
10. Have you gained something special from my being here? Yes_____ No_____
- If you have, what was it? _____

11. As a teacher, are there things you would like me to do differently? Yes_____ No_____
- If so, what are they? _____

12. Are there any other things you would like to say about my work with you?..... Yes_____ No_____
- If there are, please write them here. _____

In considering such a questionnaire with children, it is essential that they have the choice of whether or not it is to be used. It must depend on the voluntary coöperation of the children. It should be discussed thoughtfully with them in advance of its administration. It should not be presented to the children until you have explained to them that you really want their opinions, and that constructive criticisms will help you to be a better teacher.

If the children decide to participate in this appraisal, it may be advisable to make arrangements for your critic teacher, college supervisor, or some other person to analyze the papers for you. In this way, you can give additional reassurance to the children that there will be no attempt to "spot" the child who made a certain comment. If the atmosphere in which the questionnaire is used is in any way repressive or otherwise negative, the results will be misleading rather than helpful.

A Guide for Observers. The notes taken by your critic teacher or college supervisor form a basis for conferences, indicate periodic evidence of changes in your practice, provide data for a final inventory of your growth in individual conference, and may also be used as evidence in final evaluations for placement services. Some observers use cards or notebooks for making notes of significant events and behavior. Others use mimeographed lists of questions or printed booklets covering specific parts of the student teacher's work. An example of a brief, practical list of questions for inventorying your work in student teaching is presented here. While those observing your work may be using different forms, the purpose will be essentially the same. Your consideration of this form and com-

parison of it with types used by your observers may aid in analyzing more clearly certain aspects of your work.

OBSERVER'S GUIDE FOR INVENTORYING STUDENT TEACHING

(Name of Student) (Grade Level) (Date) (Name of Observer)

(Directions: After observing the student teacher in several phases of his work, enter descriptive comments to develop an anecdotal inventory)

1. Evidence that the student teacher's personality is attractive to children:
2. Evidence of wholesome child-teacher relationships:
3. Evidence of effort to meet the needs of the children:
4. Evidence that the children are working with purpose, satisfaction, and zest:
5. Evidence that the children are having opportunities to practice coöperation:
6. Evidence that children are using initiative, originality, and resourcefulness:
7. Evidence of coöperative, continuous planning:
8. Evidence of a realistic balance between first-hand and vicarious learning experiences:
9. Evidence that the student teacher is contributing to the securing of adequate and appropriate materials and equipment:
10. Evidence that children are developing independence in individual work and social sensitivity in group work:
11. Evidence that the children are developing in self-discipline:
12. Evidence that there is continuous evaluation by the children and the student teacher:
13. Evidence that the learning activities, as guided by the student teacher, are integrative for the children:

Explanations, illustrations, anecdotes, and episodes included in the notes from observation are the materials from which you can reconstruct a picture of your teaching. In working with your critic teacher and others who may supervise you, you will want them to be as specific as they can about each item in the inventory.

A Check List. Frequently those interested in the progress being made by student teachers use descriptive check lists. Such a form may not be as helpful to individual student teachers as the guide just shown, since it lacks the specific elaboration showing the "flavor" of the situation observed. On the other hand, it is more impersonal and directs attention to comparative efficiency in terms of the work of other student teachers. You will find such a check list helpful as you use it to gain an idea of your relative competence in comparison with the observer's concepts of what

constitutes good teaching. Here is a check list similar to those used in many colleges.

DESCRIPTIVE CHECK LIST FOR INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

Directions: Observe the student teacher carefully in different types of activities. Compare his work thoughtfully with that of a number of other student teachers before arriving at a judgment.

After deciding upon the quality of the student teacher's work as you view it, place a check mark (✓) on the line above the number representing his qualitative rank in your appraisal. "1" represents *excellent* work, "2" *superior*, "3" *good*, "4" *satisfactory* and "5" *poor or unsatisfactory*.

(Name of Student Teacher) (Grade Level) (Date) (Observer)

1. *Preparation for Teaching.* Knowing subject matter, materials, and potentially suitable experiences for children. Planning activities and collecting resources to enrich the lives of the children and to achieve established objectives.

1 2 3 4 5

2. *Procedures with Children.* Encouraging democratic, cooperative relationships. Showing respect for the ideas and contributions of the children.

1 2 3 4 5

3. *Techniques in Teaching.* Displaying skill in use of methods, materials, and special teaching aids. Stimulating reflective thinking, arousing and maintaining interest of children. Demonstrating ability to communicate effectively.

1 2 3 4 5

4. *Guidance toward Self-discipline.* Securing cooperation and respect of children in their attitudes and actions toward the teacher and toward each other. Emphasizing self-control by allowing sufficient freedom for children to learn to use freedom. Helping children maintain a classroom situation conducive to good work.

1 2 3 4 5

5. *Guidance in Meeting Needs.* Identifying the differences in abilities, interests, and purposes of children. Helping children grow in ability to solve problems of social living and make adjustments.

1 2 3 4 5

6. *Management of Routine.* Achieving efficient arrangement of room, equipment, materials, and activities. Exhibiting competence in planning, scheduling, and managing details of work to make best use of available time.

1 2 3 4 5

7. *Personality as a Teacher.* Having personal characteristics and qualities which exert a wholesome influence on children and promote their balanced development; achieving rapport with fellow workers and other adults; possessing a constructive attitude toward life and its challenges.

1 2 3 4 5

8. *Attitude toward Teaching.* Recognizing responsibility as a member of the teaching profession. Utilizing various means of achieving professional competence; showing promise of continuous improvement; displaying loyalty to the best interests of the school.

1 2 3 4 5

9. *Relationships with the Community.* Understanding the rôle of the teacher in improving the strategic position of the school in the community. Achieving a place in community life which interrelates the school and community and interprets each to the other.

1 2 3 4 5

10. *Mental and Physical Health.* Having a wholesome, positive approach to life, open-minded and emotionally balanced. Maintaining sound physical health. Balancing work, rest, and recreation. Appearing vigorous, energetic, wholesome.

1 2 3 4 5

When a descriptive check list is used, it is preferable that it be used twice, once near the mid-point of your work in student teaching, again near the end of your work. If you then compare the two appraisals, your growth in terms of the judgment of the observer will be clearly seen. As you recall specific aspects of your work in terms of the items checked, you can plan direct action to overcome weaknesses and utilize your strengths to better advantage. You will, of course, be interested in checking yourself. When differences of judgment appear between an observer and you, those differences should be unhesitatingly examined and frankly talked out.

The Use of a Rating Scale. It may be helpful to you to be familiar with rating scales because of their widespread use by placement bureaus, commercial teacher agencies, and superintendents and personnel directors of school systems. Occasionally, after receiving an application from or interviewing a prospective teacher, a superintendent requests the student teacher's supervisor or critic teacher to "rate him" on a scale used by the school system. Some college placement offices request critic teachers, supervisors of student teaching, and others knowing the work of student teachers to indicate their judgments by means of a rating scale. Such judgments, as recorded on the scales, are usually classified as "closed credentials." Since they are an "imposed-from-without" type of evalua-

STUDENT-TEACHER RATING SCALE

(Name of student)

(Name of person giving rating)

(School where teaching)

(Grade)

(Position of rater)

(Date)

Rate by checking in the appropriate column: (1) Superior, (2) Strong, (3) Average, (4) Acceptable, (5) Unsatisfactory.

FACTOR RATED	RATING ASSIGNED				
	1	2	3	4	5
PROFESSIONAL QUALITIES					
1. Enthusiasm for teaching					
2. Standard of ethics					
3. Ability in self-evaluation					
4. Other					
PERSONAL QUALITIES					
1. Appearance					
2. Voice and manner					
3. Culture and interests					
4. Other					
PREPARATION OF WORK					
1. Knowledge of subject matter					
2. Selection of materials					
3. Consistency and flexibility of preparation					
4. Other					
TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING					
1. Ability to create learning situations					
2. Balance of teacher-child participation					
3. Achievement of goals					
4. Other					
CLASSROOM ROUTINE					
1. Physical conditions and arrangements					
2. Efficiency in time, materials, and so on					
3. Records and reports					
4. Other					
GENERAL FACTORS					
1. Health and vitality					
2. Evidence of improvement					
3. Prediction of success					
4. Other					

tion, they are not diagnostic; they are not instruments for self-improvement. Moreover, such rating scales are recognized by educators as valid only to the extent that they reflect impersonal judgments and the acceptable educational values which the rater holds.

You may, however, be helped to "see yourself as others see you" by rating yourself on a scale in terms of the evidence you have collected about your own teaching competencies. From such an experience, you can see how crude an instrument this type of rating scale really is, and how difficult it is to use a point scale in judging the personal qualities of a human being. A sample rating scale, of the general type in use by many personnel offices, is presented for your consideration.

As you work with such rating devices, you must remember that, at best, they are crude approximations of your teaching competence. However, they are extensively used because they are considered useful for communicating, in brief form, summarized judgments of the promise of a teacher. If you attempt to analyze yourself by means of a rating scale, you will want to avoid tendencies to "pigeon-hole" yourself. With instruments of the rating-scale type there is the danger of developing inferiority feelings because of low ratings in certain items or attitudes of smugness from high ratings, and of narrowing the scope of your efforts toward continued growth.

Guidance in Taking Inventory. As a teacher in professional service, you will be subjected to the judgments of many people, including children, fellow teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, parents, and the general public which is interested in its schools. Not the least important of your goals in student teaching is learning to expect, accept, modify, and use appraisals of your work. Those concerned with your professional preparation for teaching are daily making value-judgments regarding the effectiveness of your personality, the educational goals you emphasize, and the procedures you use in working toward your goals. Their objectives tend to be in harmony with your own. Your instructors in professional courses in elementary education, your faculty adviser, your college supervisor, your critic teacher are all vitally concerned with the continued improvement of educational experiences for children. The development of competent classroom teachers is essential to the achievement of that objective. To these professional workers in education your improvement is not only a worthy goal in itself, but a means to a further goal—the improvement of public elementary education.

In taking inventory of your growth, of your strengths and lacks, of your prospects for further development, of the rate of your improvement, regard the college staff members as your colleagues as well as your teachers. Recognize their interest in you and your improvement; seek their constructive criticisms; welcome their suggestions. Your critic

teacher, having observed you teach, conferred with you, analyzed your plans, seen you actively at work and play with the children, can in some respects estimate your competence even better than you yourself can at this time.

Those qualified persons can help you to develop critical perspective regarding your progress and present level of competence. This guidance function is of real use only to those student teachers who are honestly interested in achieving their professional growth-potential; who are seeking sound bases for planning next steps of growth; who desire and can accept evidence because they recognize its usefulness to them; who are sufficiently mature to analyze and correct weaknesses; who can accept constructively critical advice without becoming defensive or resentful in a narrowly personal way. You can make good use of the guidance available to you in all of these respects.

Using the Results of Your Inventory. Through your student-teaching experiences your growth in professional competence has been four-fold: the implementation of your understanding of theory as you apply it in actual teaching situations; the testing of your abilities in function effectively in a responsible position as a guide of children's learning; the location and identification of problems and questions on which you need further work and study; the reorganization of your knowledge, skill, and personality for teaching in terms of use. The major use of your inventory is to get complete evidence of your growth so that you can yourself know how well you used your opportunities and can feel adequate in facing the challenges of your professional future. Looking back over your experiences by means of a comprehensive inventory, you discover what to avoid, what to emphasize, whether new approaches are necessary in your interpretation of the teacher's work. You also gain reassurance as you see how well you have met the challenges of student teaching.

The distinctive characteristics of your school situation must be considered in judging the quality and extensiveness of your student-teaching experience. You have carried on your work in terms of the educational goals which you understand, have acted in terms of factors as you saw them, and have learned behavior as you responded to the factors of your student-teaching environment. A large part of your judgment of how effectively you have worked and how well you have met your responsibilities must be based upon the nature of the situation in which you have been working. How extensively has your situation provided opportunities for you to demonstrate in action the skills and insights you have developed in your professional preparation? How successfully have you adjusted to the situation?

Who is to correct the errors, overcome the weaknesses, meet the needs which the inventory of your student teaching reveals? Obviously, no one

can do these things for you. After getting suggestions, constructive criticisms, and advice from those experienced persons who are interested in your welfare and who have followed your progress, the next steps must be your own. You, as a mature person embarking upon a professional career, accept responsibility for rounding out your preparation into an effective whole. As you work through the results of your inventory, you will recognize new meanings which your student teaching has helped you to acquire. You will gain a new and broader perspective on your work. You may be amazed as well as heartened at the evidence of how much you have grown, of the powers you have developed.

TAKING LEAVE OF THE JOB

No matter how completely you may have adjusted to your student-teaching situation, one further adjustment is to be faced. Even though you have enjoyably made yourself a real part of the school staff, and "belong" in the children's thinking about their school, the time of parting must come. Since it is on your behalf that adjustments have been made in the classroom work and in the school program, it is your responsibility to arrange so that your leave-taking adds no extra burden to the busy life of your critic teacher, leaves no ends for the school staff to put together. It is desirable from the standpoint of all concerned, including yourself, that the leaving of your student-teaching position be an orderly, efficient process. To terminate your student teaching as efficiently as you began it and carried it through requires foresight and thoughtful arrangements made in advance.

To make adjustments for the end of your work, well in advance, is a sign of efficiency and maturity. You will not wish abruptly to come up to the end unaware, unprepared. The following sections offer some practical suggestions for the conclusion of your student teaching to the satisfaction of all who are concerned. Naturally, you will find it necessary to modify these suggestions and add to them in terms of the unique aspects of your own particular situation.

Adjusting Curriculum Experiences. As you made your long-range plans, you paid close attention to the calendar, for the extent of your plans depended upon the time available as well as upon the children's needs and the material suggested by the curriculum guides. In your teaching you have, of course, considered the rate of progress of the group in terms of time available as well as of enterprises undertaken. Several weeks before the end of your student teaching you will want to re-study your planned program so that you can make necessary adjustments to leave, with the children's curriculum experiences well rounded out. You will plan sensible adjustments so that, after your withdrawal, your critic teacher can easily

pick up the strands of curriculum experiences which you have been holding.

The work for which you have been directly responsible—a broad unit, for example—should be brought to a satisfactory culmination before you go. The timing of the culminating activities, the final evaluation, the distributing of shared materials, all should be worked out smoothly so that related activities are synchronized rather than crammed together into a hectic day or two. It is probably wise to avoid most trip experiences during the last few days. If, as you culminate the broad unit, you get children's questions, suggestions, and leads for on-going work, you should summarize them in some way for your critic teacher to use after you leave. Jobs that various children have agreed to do, reports to be made, skill work to be evaluated, and other aspects of curriculum activities should be cleared before you leave. With work that cannot be completed, specific arrangements should be made with the children and your critic teacher. As you know, not every activity in the curriculum can be culminated or terminated. Many phases of the work must be carried forward by your critic teacher. He deserves your best efforts in making certain that continuing activities are transferred in such ways that there are clear understandings on the part of all concerned.

Completing Records. Unlike curriculum experiences, your responsibilities for maintaining classroom records can be discharged completely by a specific date. The important consideration is to set a date mutually satisfactory to your critic teacher and to you. With the date agreed upon, you can continue your normal recording procedures, gather any additional data needed, and organize all data in connection with the records for which you are responsible.

During your student teaching there may have been some standardized tests administered. If you were responsible for scoring them or for entering scores on permanent record cards, check to be sure that you have recorded them all and that you entered them accurately. Health information may have been gathered which is not yet written into the records. No doubt you have accumulated many observational notes and anecdotes concerning the behavior of particular children in significant episodes. The data should be arranged in understandable forms and, if the critic teacher so desires, made a part of the records of the children concerned. You will also want to bring up to date the cumulative files of dated samples of children's work. If you have shared responsibility for preparing home reports, there may be a number of letters to write or cards to fill out. If you have not been preparing reports, you may have basic data which can be organized for your critic teacher. Since this is necessarily a suggestive list rather than a complete enumeration, you will be wise to list what you see as your responsibilities for record-keeping, to submit the list to your

critic teacher, and to reach clear agreements concerning your final obligations for accurate, complete records.

Attending to Materials. One of the strongest challenges to your memory, as you seek to complete your various obligations, is thinking of everything you borrowed, from whom you borrowed it, and under what conditions. You do not need to be told that, if good relations are to be maintained by the school and its "borrowing ability" remain unimpaired, each article borrowed by you or the children must be returned to its owner. Not only must the articles find their way back, but they must go back in good condition. A stamp collection, retained for the culminating activity, will be loaned again reluctantly—if at all—should the owner find pages torn, stamps smudged, or leaves badly dog-eared. Nor is an amateur model-maker cheered to find his favorite coach with a broken wheel. However, accidents do sometimes happen despite the best of care. Should some article you borrowed for your teaching be damaged, the only course is to explain carefully, arrange if possible for restitution or recompense, and hope that the children and you will be forgiven.

Critic teachers and college supervisors sometimes lend books, outlines, or other such materials to student teachers. Even though you think that you have returned every borrowed item to them, it is well to check again to be sure. Many critic teachers and college instructors have been tempted to discontinue their generous practices of lending materials to students because of the high cost of careless forgetfulness on the part of the borrowers. You will also want to look through the classroom carefully to reassure yourself that you have returned all books, magazines, and pamphlets to libraries, apparatus to the laboratory, and tools to the shop. Check the inventory of classroom supplies to find needs for re-orders. Not only will this be a help to your critic teacher but also to the principal. Art paper, drawing paper and drawing ink, paste, finger paint, water colors, brushes, and other such instructional materials are consumed rapidly. You do not want your critic teacher, after you leave, to lack a much-needed material because of your oversight or carelessness in not listing supplies that need replenishing.

It is probable that a variety of things written, painted, or constructed by the children have been accumulated. The work of individual children should be returned to them so that they may take it home. Some of the individual work may be placed in the cumulative folders. Decisions, too, must be made as to the disposition of the products of group work. Certain products or materials must be stored.

As you make appropriate disposition of materials, it is only using foresight to check your own lists of materials and sources of classroom supplies. Do you know where the lined chart paper may be secured? Have you the addresses of sources from which you have secured desirable free

materials? Have very recent books been added to your bibliographies? Next year, in your own classroom, you may need those very things.

Taking Leave of the Children and the Staff. Your growth in competence for teaching has been accompanied by feelings of respect and friendliness between you and the children. While it is to be expected that you will not be cold or indifferent in your manner of parting from the children, neither will you emphasize sentimental sweetness or strong emotional reactions about your leaving. The tactful approach is to prepare the children well in advance for your departure. Tell them, simply and naturally, when you are going, why, and what you plan to do after your work with them is completed. In that way your going will be accepted as naturally as your arrival.

Since the children have helped you as much as you have helped them, you will want to express your appreciation of their coöperation and your enjoyment of the experiences shared with them. Of course your own sense of the appropriate will guide you in this. Elaborate speeches or high-flown panegyrics are to be avoided in favor of simple statements, expressed in terms which appeal to children, of the pleasure you have had in living and working with the group. It is natural that you will wish to have individual conferences with a few children to review their problems and progress, to point out how much they have grown, and to express your hopes for them in the future.

The problem of farewell parties and gifts may confront you. Such occasions and mementos should be forestalled. Party urges may be transferred, very suitably, into the culminating activities of the broad unit, summary reports of correlated studies, or similar programs. If the children wish to give you samples of their work, as frequently happens, well and good. Accept them graciously and explain how you may use them. It is not appropriate for you to attempt the rôle of Santa Claus. You will tactfully avoid giving any implication that the children are to expect gifts from you.

If you have told the children well ahead of time and have handled their questions adequately, the events of your last day should be little different from any other day. The normal course of work and play may be expected and encouraged. In bidding the children good-bye, tell them when you will see them again if such a visit is practicable. At the end of the day your critic teacher will help you to leave gracefully and naturally, with everyone in good spirits.

Your last few days will be very busy ones but they should not be so busy that you overlook appropriate expressions of appreciation to the staff. It is fitting that you take verbal leave of each staff member with whom you have had personal contact. In your farewells it is wise to avoid over-stressing your appreciation. Your genuine reactions through the period of your student teaching have already indicated to the staff your

real understanding of their contributions. Your skillful leave-taking, in a very real sense, paves the way for the student teacher who may follow you.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

Your self-appraisal will serve a double purpose in this case. You will use these criteria as guides for evaluating your proficiency in completing your work. You will also be making judgments of your personal characteristics as a teacher and of your competence in carrying on the actual teaching operations. Here are some aids for your consideration of how satisfactorily you have achieved your goals in student teaching and how effectively you are terminating your student-teaching activities.

1. *The Elements of Competence for Teaching:*

In what ways have your conceptions of competence for teaching been changed as a result of examining the elements of competence presented here? With reference to each of the competencies, what are now your greatest assets? Your most serious liabilities? In what competencies have you made the most growth through student teaching? What specific plans have you to overcome the weaknesses you have found?

2. *Your Competence in the Operations of Teaching:*

In what ways have your experiences in student teaching changed your ideas of your personal effectiveness with children, with other teachers, with parents? What new ideas have you gained through following the six evaluative steps in appraising yourself with regard to the elements of competence? What do your conclusions imply for your first year of teaching?

3. *Taking Inventory of Your Own Growth:*

What does the evidence show concerning your success in establishing effective relationships with the children? Professional relationships with the school staff? As you honestly evaluate yourself, what are your conclusions regarding the extent of your growth during student teaching? Your present level of competence?

4. *Taking Leave of the Job:*

As you look back on your leave-taking, what are the implications for your successful completion of your first school year?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. No two student teachers achieve the same results for the children or for their own growth, even though they work with the same critic teacher and the same group of children. What are some of the chief reasons for such variations in results?
2. Sometimes you hear people say "He's a born teacher." Can a teacher achieve competence in the operations of teaching without possessing the elements of competence discussed in this chapter?

3. It is generally agreed that there are no satisfactory objective techniques for measuring effectiveness in teaching. What are the reasons for this? What are some of the effects that the lack of objective means of measurement have on teaching as a profession?
4. An elementary-school principal observed, "I can make a good guess about how student teachers will turn out on the job, as I observe the manner in which they take leave of us." On what bases could he make such a statement?
5. The final test of competence in teaching is "Has your teaching made socially desirable differences in the children with whom you worked?" How may this test be applied? What are the implications of such an idea for the curriculum? For the personal characteristics of the teachers?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

BAXTER, Bernice, *Teacher-Pupil Relationships* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1946).

This pocket-sized volume is a readable presentation of the factors involved in successful personal adjustment to children. Chapter III, "Successful and Unsuccessful Teachers Contrasted," and Chapter V, "An Effective Teacher Described," may be helpful as you appraise your personal characteristics.

BURTON, William H., *The Guidance of Learning Activities* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944).

Chapter 6, "The General Characteristics of Teaching," will be thought-provoking to you in analyzing your achievement. Chapter 17, "The Measurement and Evaluation of Learning Outcomes," will be useful as you appraise your competence in carrying on the operations of classroom teaching.

Department of Elementary School Principals, *Teach Them All* (Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1948).

This is a pictorial summary of the Educational Policies Commission report, *Education for All American Children*, which is the first major statement of NEA policy for elementary education issued in more than thirty years. It describes modern practices in elementary schools and forecasts the development of elementary education for the next decade.

HILBRETH, Gertrude, *Learning the Three R's* (Minneapolis, Educational Publishers, Inc., 1947).

You will find this book useful as a reference on teaching the skills. In twenty-eight chapters the author summarizes significant research, points out modern trends, and suggests practices in teaching. While you probably have become familiar with the volume in your professional courses, a review of it may be worth-while to you in taking inventory of your operational competence.

KELLOOG, Rhoda, *Nursery School Guide* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1949).

This book will be useful for better understanding of early childhood education, as well as for suggestions in completing your work. Chapters 3, "Equipment," and 4, "Materials," include suggestions for care and storage. Chapter 6, "Staff," contains a brief, thought-provoking discussion of teacher preparation and teacher rating.

KELLEY, Ida B., and PRAXIS, Keith J., *How I Teach* (Minneapolis, Educational Test Bureau, Educational Publishers, Inc., 1943).

This is an analysis of teaching practices set up in the form of a test. To make it possible to secure evidence of growth, the test is furnished in two versions, Form A and Form B. You may find it beneficial to take one of the forms.

CHAPTER XV

Looking Beyond Student Teaching

As you look beyond student teaching, you will undoubtedly be anticipating with enthusiasm and no little curiosity your first year of teaching. Your thinking and planning for this first year of teaching are probably, at this point, revolving in a more-or-less organized fashion about four major questions: How do I go about getting a job where I shall have a reasonable opportunity for achieving success and happiness? What further planning might I do for this first year of teaching? What factors will be involved in my adjustment to the new school situation? How can I provide for continued professional growth on the job? In the following pages each of these four questions will be discussed. The intent is not to devise specific answers to these questions for you but rather to point out some primary considerations as you make your own decisions about these vital affairs.

PREPARATIONS FOR PLACEMENT

Quite naturally nothing seems more important to you, as you look beyond student teaching, than your specific placement for your first regular teaching. Preparations for placement constitute a bridge between your student teaching and your first job. Preparation demands time and effort on your part and entails responsibilities which you cannot afford to neglect. Teaching positions are available which are suitable for you. Other positions which you may be offered will have limitations that make them undesirable for one of your personality and professional qualifications. The suitability of your placement depends largely upon the care and thought you give to preparing your credentials, participating in interviews, and studying prospective school situations.

Functions of the College Placement Service. Most teachers' colleges maintain a placement service, the major function of which is to secure teaching positions for its graduates. However, the placement service has a two-way responsibility. It serves not only the students and graduates of the college but also the school boards and superintendents of communities who need teachers. As it carries on its work, the placement service is active in the following ways:

1. The placement service accumulates pertinent information about students for the use of prospective employers.
2. The placement service seeks out teaching vacancies in the territory served.
3. The placement service is active in keeping student teachers and teachers in service informed concerning types of vacancies, qualifications desired, salary levels, changes in certification, and the like.
4. The placement service brings together superintendents of schools and applicants for teaching positions so that suitable placements can be made.
5. The placement service gathers information from school systems on the success of graduates on the job.
6. The placement service keeps continuous files of information about graduates so that suitable changes in teaching positions may be facilitated.
7. The placement service makes available information relative to the varying state certification requirements.

Obviously, the placement service in your college can be of real help to you, not only in securing your first position but, if you do your part, in keeping your records up-to-date throughout your teaching career. It should be mentioned that it is a rare situation indeed in which favoritism operates in placement offices. You will do well to go into all of your dealings with this service assuming that you will be treated fairly.

Preparing Your Credentials. One of your first responsibilities in connection with the placement service is the preparation of credentials. Credentials include data on your academic record, your educational experiences with children, your work experiences, your extra-curricular activities, your special abilities, and letters of recommendation which give personal appraisals of your promise as a teacher. Your academic record will routinely be included in your papers. Since this record speaks for itself, in writing material for your credentials it will be wise for you to avoid overemphasizing this academic part of your preparation. In addition, superintendents want to know about you as a person: your interests, attitudes, and values. They will want, also, to know about the breadth of your experiences and your intentions with regard to teaching as a profession.

Placement-service personnel make appraisals of you on the basis of the content of your credentials and of personal interviews with you. But these people will be influenced as well by the manner in which you go about assembling your credentials. One experienced placement counselor said, "It is amazing how many prospective teachers fail to read instructions carefully when they start to compile credentials. Naturally, one feels that he has learned something of significance about the person who is careless in discharging this responsibility." As you go about this job, keep in mind the importance of these materials. Remember, too, that these records are cumulative and will be referred to for years by potential employers.

To give you more specific help in doing a thorough job with the credential material which you personally contribute, the following guides are offered:

1. *Provide accurate detail on job and service experience.* Your credentials should include complete information about your work experience. Be sure to include such experience as camp counselor, nurse's aid, Sunday-school teacher, settlement-house worker, 4-H club leader, waitress, salesman, farm-hand, playground supervisor, clerk, laborer, and so on. Along with a description of your work, provide the name of the employer or service agency, the location, and the dates.

2. *Furnish information about your extra-curricular activities.* Complete data on your extra-curricular activities are important to the prospective employer. Participation in social and professional organizations, varsity or intra-mural athletics, student government, publications, band, and so on should be included. Through such data you will provide a clearer impression of the breadth of your experiences and to some extent of your social effectiveness.

3. *Emphasize special abilities.* Do not permit your modesty to keep you from telling about your special abilities in dramatics, athletics, painting, weaving, sculpture, woodwork, sewing. Or you may have pursued an interesting hobby for a number of years such as stamp collecting, hiking, building models of ships, or raising cocker spaniels. Avoid setting your standards too high. The superintendent will probably be as much interested in your enthusiasm as in your expertness.

4. *Obtain a good photograph.* A clear photograph that honestly represents your appearance at your best is a must in those situations where photographs are included in credentials. It is advisable to have your picture taken dressed and groomed as you would be for an interview with a school superintendent or for your first day of teaching. The added expense involved in going to a reputable photographer constitutes a sensible investment.

5. *Give careful attention to handwriting, spelling, and English usage.* Some of your data should be presented in your own best handwriting. Do not be tempted to dash off your information, possibly with a strange pen, in order to get the task completed. Write out thoughtfully on practice paper what you want to say. Then carefully proofread for spelling and English usage before making the final copy for your credentials. If you have the ability to write legibly in both cursive and manuscript, by all means include a sample of each in your credentials. Every superintendent will be properly concerned that the teachers he hires will have mastered these common skills.

Thoughtful attention to these suggestions will help you prepare credentials that honestly represent you at your best. Remember that prospective employers get their first impressions of you not only from the data that is assembled but also from the way it is organized and presented.

Securing Letters of Recommendation. A superintendent who is considering you for a teaching position will learn all he can about you from the materials which you personally prepare and from other records gathered by the placement service. Another part of your credentials in which he will be particularly interested are the letters of recommendation

which are written by persons who know you and your work well enough to appraise your promise as a teacher.

The placement service will probably indicate the number of letters you should secure. If you have some choice in the matter, it is suggested that four or five recommendations are appropriate for your first set of credentials. You may have some voice in deciding whom you will ask to write statements for you. You will, of course, want a letter from some one who has worked with you in student teaching—your critic teacher or your college supervisor. Two other letters might well be written by college teachers with whom you have had success. It may be preferable that one of these letters comes from a college teacher who can write about your professional course work. The other might be written by a teacher in some specialized phase of education such as music, art, or physical education or a teacher in a field of general education if you feel that he knows your capabilities. Probably one recommendation should come from a person whose opinion is respected but who has not been closely identified with your professional preparation—a sorority house-mother, a dormitory head-resident, a clergyman, a youth-organization executive, a school superintendent. If you have had extensive or particularly outstanding work experience, your employer might well be one of the choices. A balanced group of letters is the desired aim.

After you have decided which persons you will invite to write recommendations, the requests should be made, if possible, by personal interview. Your objectives in the interview will be: to recall previous contacts you have had with the person; to bring him up-to-date on your subsequent professional experiences; to impress him with the importance you attach to the recommendation; and to convey appreciation for his time and effort in performing this service for you.

These letters of recommendation become "closed credentials." This term means that the letters are not available to you or to anyone other than placement-service personnel or prospective employers. While it will not be necessary to explain this to faculty members who frequently write recommendations, you should clarify the closed nature of the credentials to those who seldom have such requests. You should explain that while you are responsible for seeing that the confidential recommendation is written, the letter is to be sent directly to the placement office. Be sure that it is understood that you do not want to see a copy of what is written about you.

On occasion, you will need to specify the nature of the information that is to go into the recommendation. When this is necessary, you might suggest that school superintendents will welcome judgments about such matters as: your relationships with people, your effectiveness with children, your ability to adjust to new situations, your reliability, your

appearance and grooming, your capacity for work, and your attitude toward teaching as a profession.

Judging the Desirability of a Teaching Position. With the continuing need for elementary-school teachers who have modern, professional preparation, well-qualified student teachers will have opportunities to choose from among teaching positions the particular one which seems most suitable and attractive. You will want to teach where you can make a real contribution and where you will be well rewarded for your efforts. Furthermore, you will want to teach in a community that offers satisfactory personal living for you. In making decisions about your placement, you may be able to get sound advice from your college teachers, your critic teacher, parents, family friends, school superintendents, and teachers in the field. But no one can make the choice for you; that you must do for yourself. As a basis for that choice, you are directed to the following considerations:

1. *Size and nature of the community.* (Is this the type of community in which I want to teach?) As you find out about a community, significant considerations are its size, the economic status of the people, the nature of its industries, the national and religious backgrounds of its citizens, evidences of pride in public schools, and the opportunities available for recreational pursuits. Usually beginning teachers do well, other things being equal, to teach in a community that is not widely different from that which they know at first-hand. However, if you have always lived in a city, you may want to teach in a small town. If you grew up in a family of financial means, you may prefer to teach in an economically underprivileged area. But you should go into such situations with your eyes wide open, knowing that you will probably have adjustments to make.

2. *Home community versus away from home.* (Should I teach in my home community?) Many plausible justifications can be advanced for teaching in one's home community: knowledge of the community and its people, desirability of working among friends, financial savings from living with one's family, personal concern for the improvement of the home community. There are, however, potential limitations. Many teachers have found that living at home and teaching in the local community make difficult the achievement of professional growth, personal maturity, independence of thinking, and financial independence. These teachers say that people in the home community tend to think of them as the neighbors' sons and daughters rather than as mature, educated adults. They claim that unrealistic demands are made on their time by community groups and that family responsibilities interfere with important professional and personal living. Finally, some teachers, who have never taught away from home, feel that they have been denied the satisfaction of knowing that they succeeded entirely on their own.

3. *Curriculum of the school.* (Will I be able to use what I have learned and believe in?) Your professional education has given you an understanding of the broad aims and procedures of modern schools. You believe in modern education. Your happiness in teaching depends largely upon being able to work with children in accord with what you believe. You should find out the extent to which the curriculum of the school tends to be traditional or modern

and the direction in which the staff is moving. You will want to know, too, the part that teachers play in determining the curriculum of the school. Related considerations are the size of classroom groups, physical plant and equipment, availability of up-to-date curriculum materials, and the assistance of special teachers. Some student teachers are hesitant to ask about these curriculum matters and as a result are disappointed with their first placement. School superintendents will respect you for asking questions that indicate your desire to teach in a school where your professional education will be valued.

4. *Opportunities for in-service growth.* (Will I continue to grow professionally in this school system?) The student teacher who wishes to become increasingly effective as a teacher should consider the provisions of the school system for the continued education of its teachers. Beginning teachers need help in the classroom from full-time principals and supervisors; they need to meet with other teachers in study groups; they need to experience group curriculum planning; they can profit from teacher workshops; they need materials for professional growth. Some school systems have well-organized programs for group orientation of beginning teachers. Find out about the superintendent's attitude toward in-service education and what is being done about it in the school system that you are considering.

5. *Attitudes toward the personal living of teachers.* (Will I be free to live a well-balanced life?) The idea that school boards or superintendents of schools have the right to dictate the personal living of teachers is rapidly disappearing. But do not leave this to chance. Find out what restrictions there might be on your out-of-school living. What about smoking? Dating? Will you decide whether or not you go to church? Whether or not you teach Sunday-school? Will you be free to use your week-ends as you see fit? Are there restrictions as to where you will live? Your questions about these vital matters should indicate, of course, that you have no intention of flouting conventions or of being inconsiderate of the mores of the community, but that you do want to teach in a community which encourages its teachers to live, with personal freedom, as fully as respected persons in other occupations.

6. *Salary schedules.* (Will I be paid enough to live well and be free from undue financial worries?) The salary that you will be paid is one of the most important considerations. Other things being equal, you should accept the teaching position that offers the best salary. Most good school systems have established salary schedules, the details of which are available to teachers applying for positions. The school superintendent, rather than bargaining with you about salary, will tell you what the schedule provides for an inexperienced teacher with your training, and will state the annual increments. You will, of course, look with particular favor upon school systems having single-salary schedules for elementary and secondary teachers of comparable preparation and experience. You will be wise to consider the offered salary in relation to living costs in the community—housing, food, standards of dress, entertainment, transportation, et cetera. In your final decision, you must remember that salary is only one of the important considerations in judging the desirability of a teaching position.

7. *Tenure and turnover.* (What are my prospects for reemployment in this school system?) In many states teachers are now protected by tenure laws that generally provide that they cannot be discharged unless they are guilty of incompetence, neglect of duty, or immorality. However, under these laws the teacher does not achieve tenure until he has taught successfully in the

school system for two or three years. For your own protection you will want to know the tenure laws of the state and the particular practices of the school system you are considering. Data on turnover may or may not be indicative. You should weigh carefully the causes of turnover before accepting a position in a school system which annually replaces a large percentage of its staff.

8. *Attitudes toward religion, nationality, race.* (Is this school system democratically respectful of differences?) In some school systems and communities, teachers of a given religion, race, or national background will have a difficult time. You will want to know if such prejudice exists to avoid accepting a position where you would be personally embarrassed by being in the rejected minority. Moreover, whether you are in the minority or not, your democratic values should cause you to deliberate the advisability of beginning your teaching in such a situation.

The personnel of the placement service, the superintendent of schools or his representative, and the staff of the school system are your primary sources of information in weighing these considerations. Placement counselors build up a great deal of useful information about particular school systems which they will share to help you obtain a suitable position. The superintendent of schools you will meet in an interview. If it is at all possible, you should visit the school and community which you are considering. There you will have opportunity to talk to members of the teaching staff as well as to observe.

Participating in Placement Interviews. Seldom will a school superintendent employ a beginning teacher without a personal interview. And rarely will the wise student teacher decide on a position unless he has conferred with a responsible official of the school system. When the school superintendent invites you to confer with him, he has probably already studied your credentials and is interested in your candidacy. If you make an appointment for an interview, you should be seriously considering the position on the basis of your present information. However, you should not go into the conference with a strong feeling of obligation. The placement service will not necessarily expect you to take the first job that is offered to you. The purpose of the interview is to provide, through a process of thinking together, further evidence of your suitability for the job and the suitability of the job for you. While your attitude toward the superintendent might properly convey respect, you will want to avoid humbleness on the one hand or cockiness on the other.

Although no two placement interviews will follow the same pattern, there are characteristics that can be said to apply generally to a good interview:

1. The two parties meet on equal terms, not one superior and the other inferior.
2. They meet with the common concern of determining whether the particular teaching position is right for the prospective teacher.

3. The conferring goes on in an atmosphere of democratic communication.
4. The interview is a two-way proposition, directed to exchanging pertinent information.
5. Each party is responsible for revealing all pertinent information.
6. Both parties appreciate the value of time and present information succinctly.
7. Both parties leave the interview with clear understandings of agreements, commitments, and next steps.

You are already familiar with the kinds of information you need for judging the desirability of a teaching position. Some of this information will be gained in the interview. In addition, the interview affords an opportunity for you to ask very specific questions that are of concern to you: How is placement within the school system determined? If I want a fifth grade, can I be sure of being placed there? What types of living accommodations are available for teachers? What special responsibilities beyond classroom teaching would I have, such as week-end work or special assignments for writing course-of-study material? What allowance is made for the relaxation of teachers during the noon hour or at any other times during the school day?

The information that you give in the interview will, for the most part, supplement and clarify your credentials. The superintendent, too, will have a series of questions to ask: How long do you expect to teach? At what grade levels are you willing to work? What is your point of view concerning the teaching of reading? He may want to explore further your particular strengths and weaknesses; your attitudes toward working with children; your willingness to adapt sensibly and constructively to present practices in the school system.

From the standpoint of the superintendent, a major purpose of the interview is to make judgments as to your personality. He will hope to secure, indirectly, answers to such unvoiced questions as these:

1. Is your appearance generally pleasing?
2. Are you clean and sensibly groomed?
3. Are you too aggressive? Too retiring?
4. Do you show signs of marked eccentricity?
5. Do you have a sense of humor?
6. Does your manner convey culture and refinement?
7. Do you express yourself with clarity, tact, and frankness?
8. Are you emotionally healthy, or do you give evidence of being overly tense or repressed?
9. Are you realistic about your professional competence? Your special abilities?
10. Will you be receptive to constructive criticism?
11. Do you evidence a healthy, wholesome approach to problems or a negative defeatism?
12. Will you be clinical in discussion of school affairs or are you inclined to gossip?

13. Do you hold strong prejudices or biases?
14. Are you concerned with giving service as well as with receiving pay?
15. Can you explain with clarity your beliefs about modern elementary education?

In turn, you will be making unvoiced judgments concerning the superintendent as an educational leader. Does he understand and respect modern school practices? Is he sympathetic to the professional problems of teachers? In fact, the above list of fifteen questions might well guide you in studying the superintendent as a person.

Visiting the School System. Still another way of obtaining the information that you need to judge the desirability of a teaching position is to visit the community and school in question. Even though your interview with the superintendent has been most satisfactory and your advisors recommend accepting the placement, you should be quite hesitant about signing a contract until you have seen the community and visited in the school system. Through this first-hand experience you will be able to supplement and further clarify what you have been told. Through such a visit you can gain the satisfaction of knowing what the schools are doing for children as a basis for choosing wisely.

You should not arrive for a visit unexpected. The request to visit the school system should be directed to the superintendent of schools or his official representative. You should mention the date most suitable to you and some possible alternatives. You might specify in your communication that you would like to observe in some of the schools, confer with the principal and some of the teachers, and see something of the community that the schools serve.

While you are visiting, needless to say, your investigating and questioning should be on a high professional level and should avoid any suggestion of inviting petty gossip or personal condemnation. Some of your questions must remain unasked; these will be better answered by astute observation. Remember that in this visit you are making your first impression upon people with whom you may work.

Although you will, for the most part, be seeking general information and impressions of the community and the schools, some pre-planning of your visit is advisable. If your visit follows your placement interview, there will be some particular things that you will especially want to see and some specific questions that you will want to ask. Some time spent, prior to the visit, in thinking through these points for emphasis and jotting them down for reference will help you make the most of the visit. Your critic teacher or college supervisor may be able to help you in this pre-planning.

Writing Letters of Application. With the existing shortage of qualified elementary-school teachers and the increasing activity of placement

services, most student teachers will not have to write for their first positions. However, when the placement service is not sufficiently active, when a position in a particular community or geographic area is desired, or when all other means have failed to result in desirable placement, the letter of application may be effective.

If you have occasion to write letters of application, remember that these communications represent you. Many letters are immediately discarded by superintendents because the applicants have evidenced lack of judgment, shown poor taste, or used incorrect English. In writing a letter of application, you may find the following guides helpful:

1. Address the superintendent by name. The heading of your business letter should carry his complete name. The salutation properly includes his last name: "My dear Mr. Jones" or "Dear Superintendent Jones."
2. Make clear in your letter, without effusiveness, why you wish to teach in this particular community.
3. Provide some well-organized but brief information about yourself, and invite the superintendent to send for your credentials.
4. Enclose a recent photograph of yourself.
5. Be careful of form and organization in your letter. Use a standard business letter form. Proofread carefully for errors in spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, sentence structure, indentations, spacing.
6. Use standard, white business stationery. Paper $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ inches is correct.
7. Enclose a self-addressed, stamped envelope which will easily take blank forms that the superintendent, or the personnel officer, may want to send to you.
8. Return promptly any forms sent to you. Give the same care to filling out these forms that you have given to preparing your credentials.
9. Write only to school systems where you are reasonably sure you would accept an offer of a position. It is not unethical to file applications at several places at the same time. Professional ethics do require that offers be acted upon promptly. Deliberately delaying for bargaining purposes is unjustifiable behavior.
10. Withdraw applications which you will be in no position to act upon. Notify all school systems where you have made applications immediately upon accepting a position.

You may wish to apply for positions within your state but beyond the area which your college placement service normally covers. In this case you can request from your state department of education their up-to-date bulletin of city and county school officials. If you intend to use the letter of application to apply to school systems situated some distance from your home or college, you will find useful the bulletin of the United States Office of Education which contains names of the superintendents of town, city, and county schools.

Write to: Superintendent of Documents
U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington 25, D. C.

Ask for: *Educational Directory, Part 2*
County and City School Officers
U.S. Office of Education
Federal Security Agency

Enclose: Twenty cents in coin

Signing a Contract. When you have a definite offer of a teaching position and have decided to accept it, the question of signing a contract then arises. Although a few private schools operate without using formal, written contracts, the public-school systems use the contract almost without exception. The formal contract is a means of protecting the rights and interests of both parties: the Board of Education, representing the school and the community, on the one hand, and the teacher on the other. As such, the contract states the pertinent terms of the agreement. The general character of the contract implies the right of either party to declare the contract void if the agreements listed or implied in it are not carried out by the other one of the parties concerned. Items in a contract may be indicative of the type of school system.

Problems of professional ethics are involved in signing and abiding by contracts. It is unethical for a teacher to break a contract in order to accept another position unless the terms agreed upon have not been carried out by the board of education, or unless the board of education and the superintendent are willing to release him. Thus the teacher who behaves professionally signs a contract in good faith, with every intention of teaching in the school system for the stipulated period. This implies, of course, that the teacher, upon signing a contract, withdraws applications from other school systems and refrains from seeking another position which may seem more attractive.

On occasion, after a teacher signs a contract, he will be offered a job which represents an unusual opportunity for professional advancement. Very few superintendents would stand in the way of a person who has such an opportunity; and in this case it is not unethical for the teacher to request release from the signed contract. However, this situation seldom pertains to the beginning teacher, particularly if he has chosen carefully in the first place. Moreover, it should be made quite clear that the teacher is not justified in asking for release for such reasons as gaining a small increase in salary, teaching nearer home, working with a friend, teaching in the second grade rather than the first, or accommodating the whims of one's family.

The contract should be submitted to you already signed by the appropriate school official. When you add your signature, the contract will be in force. Before you sign your name and mail the contract, you should be able to answer the following questions in the affirmative:

1. Do I know enough about this school system and community, and the particular assignment I am to have, to conclude that the position is suitable for me?
2. Am I ready to decide against other teaching offers and to refrain from making further applications?
3. Do I thoroughly understand the provisions of this contract?

Although verbal agreements made prior to the signing of the formal contract should be respected by both parties, they are not legally binding. On the other hand, if you receive an offer of a position by telegram or letter and accept through the same medium, for all intents and purposes a contract exists.

Using Commercial Teacher Agencies. Since your college placement service will probably be able to give you adequate assistance in obtaining suitable placement, you will have little need for the commercial agency. These agencies are private concerns, not connected with any college or school system, and are financed through enrollment fees and a percentage of the first-year salary of the persons whom they place in teaching positions.

If, however, you fail to secure a desirable position either through the placement service or by direct application to school systems, you may want to try a commercial agency. If you are interested in dealing with such an agency, the administrative office of your state teachers' association will be able to give you information as to which agencies are reliable and professional in their procedures. Moreover, you may find that your state department of education maintains a placement service at no expense to candidates.

ADJUSTING TO THE NEW SCHOOL SITUATION

Most student teachers can look forward to an interlude of several months between the time of signing a contract for their first teaching position and the day they begin to teach. It is during this period that the process of adjusting to the new school situation gets under way. When beginning teachers have a particularly difficult time in the early months on the first job, frequently a contributing factor is that they have not had the time, or given the energy, thoughtfully to consider potential problems in the new situation. For the beginning teacher, nothing is more important in getting started well than that he be relaxed, rested, and eager to teach when he first meets the children. In this interlude, however, he can further prepare for a successful start by acquainting himself with the curriculum plan and guides of the school, by reorganizing his own professional materials, by making the most of pre-school conferences and workshops, and by finding out about the administrative arrangements of the school.

Learning about the School's Curriculum. You, of course, did some questioning and learning about the curriculum of the school as a condition to accepting the job. But now that you know you are going to teach in the school system, your investigating becomes even more pointed and specific. Potentially, one main source of information is conferences or informal talks with teachers, the principal, supervisors, and the superintendent. Although to see these persons will take some arranging, you must recognize that it is only through this source that you can find out about the real emphases in the curriculum and how, actually, the printed curriculum guides are utilized. The other main source of information resides in the textbooks and supplementary books in use in the school, the teaching aids available, and the printed courses of study, supervisory bulletins, and curriculum guides.

If it can be arranged without undue hardship, a visit to the school system after you have been employed will be helpful. While you have probably visited in the schools before you signed a contract, this second visit might be arranged when you have been assigned to a particular building, possibly know the grade level, and when the persons interviewed know that you are going to be a member of the staff. The high spot of such a visit might well be a conference with the principal or supervisor who will be directly responsible for guiding your teaching. At this time you would ask pertinent questions about the curriculum and request copies of printed materials to take home with you. You will particularly want to know the extent to which the courses of study and curriculum guides are flexible and suggestive. You will want to know, in general, how the textbooks and teaching aids are to be used. The answers that you receive to questions about these vital matters will guide you in the study of the curriculum materials during the weeks preceding your teaching. If a visit is impractical, you can accomplish your purposes, although somewhat less effectively, by correspondence.

Reorganizing Your Professional Materials. Another activity directed toward adjusting to the new school situation is to reorganize your professional materials in the light of what you have learned about the curriculum of this particular school or school system. When, through conferences and examination of teachers' guides and children's books, you have gained a working knowledge of the scope and sequence of the curriculum, you have a basis for reorganizing your materials for use on the job.

For example, you may have learned that a major emphasis in the curriculum for the seven-year-olds, whom you are to teach, is "Workers Who Help Us in Our Neighborhood." With this information in mind, you will want to reorganize your materials, searching out what is particularly pertinent. First, you would want to make readily available notes and records from professional courses which would help you in re-thinking

the broad purposes, potential values, and possible procedures of such a study. Then, you would want to pull together research materials which might be useful in the study: bibliographies, recordings, pictures, trip possibilities, and so on. It would be wise, too, in going over your files, notebooks, and professional books to search out materials which might be utilized in guiding activities of the study: ideas for collections and exhibits, information as to sources of art materials, notes on children's dramatizations, suggestions for construction, et cetera. This process of reorganizing will serve, also, in sensitizing you to new materials that you might be gathering before you meet the children.

You may have learned, also, that the school's reading program encourages wide use of experience reading charts. Thus, you would have particular purpose in seeking out materials relative to the making and use of charts. This would call for identifying the sections of your professional books and files that you consider most helpful. You might have samples of charts among your materials that you would want for reference on the job. You would also want to have at hand information as to where suitable paper, pens, and chart racks can be secured.

The particular form that the reorganization of materials takes will vary from teacher to teacher. The important thing is that your new organization should make pertinent and potentially useful materials more readily accessible to you.

Taking Advantage of Pre-school Conferences and Workshops. At the beginning of each school year, modern school systems provide some type of conference for the entire staff preceding the arrival of the children. The extensivity of these offerings range from the half-day conference to the two-week workshop. The purposes of such pre-teaching meetings are to provide professional stimulation for the staff and to facilitate group pre-planning for the year ahead. The organization of the meetings ordinarily involves both large and small group conferring. The large groups may meet to hear visiting educational consultants, leaders in the community, or members of the staff of the schools. Often the large group conferences include panel discussions and audience participation. Small group conferences afford opportunity for committees, special-interest groups, building faculties, and new teachers to meet together. The small group conferences, of course, lend themselves more readily to informality and to free communication between group members. When the pre-school conference of a given system extends over a period of a week or more, there is greater opportunity to emphasize cooperative planning and working together on common problems in a democratic atmosphere.

The pre-school conferences of the entire school staff afford an unusually significant learning opportunity for the beginning teacher. Through these meetings he can accelerate his orientation to the school system. He can

learn more about the philosophy and purposes guiding the staff and the procedures for curriculum planning. He can discover the working relationships among members of the staff. He can begin to identify those staff members who hold educational values somewhat similar to his own. He can gain information immediately and practically beneficial in getting started in the school system. He can make beginnings in establishing himself as a professional teacher. The old cliché, "You will get out of it what you put into it," is especially appropriate to pre-school conferences. You will do well to go into these conferences alert and ready to take full advantage of what they have to offer for the beginning teacher.

Cues for your own participation in these meetings come directly from your previous experience with student-teaching conferences. Behavior appropriate in student-teaching conferences will, for the most part, be suitable for pre-school conferences. A caution might be worth mentioning. Although you should feel responsible for making timely contributions, particularly in small groups, you will want sedulously to avoid giving the impression that you "have all of the answers." Direct negative criticism of existing practices in the school system by the beginning teacher is ill-advised and seldom defensible. Experienced teachers will think, and with considerable justification, that, no matter how thorough and modern the professional education of the new teacher has been, he must learn more about the particular community and school situation before he can know what specific practices are appropriate.

Adjusting to Specific Arrangements. Before you meet the children on the first day of the session, you should know about certain specific administrative arrangements of the school. These arrangements originate within a variety of sources: state law, regulations of the board of education, the superintendent of schools, the principal, the faculty, and, on occasion, through combinations of the above. In any case, as a new teacher, your responsibility is to find out about administrative arrangements and to prepare to adjust to them. You will want to investigate, in the days immediately preceding the opening of school, arrangements pertaining to such matters as these:

1. Fire drills
2. Use of entrances, exits, stairs, lavatories, and playground space
3. Time factors and schedules
4. Sources and procedures for obtaining equipment
5. Use of special equipment
6. Procedures relating to the absence of children
7. Arrangements by which children may be taken from the school within school hours
8. Teacher responsibilities before and after school
9. Use of special rooms
10. Particular arrangements for inclement weather

11. Teacher supervision of hallways, playground, lunchroom, et cetera
12. Availability of school nurse, physician, visiting teacher, psychologist
13. Services of the school custodian
14. Coordination with activities of special teachers
15. Reports of children's progress to parents
16. Records to be kept and forms to be filled out
17. Sale of books, supplies, and equipment
18. Schedules of teachers' meetings
19. Necessary absence of the teacher.

You can find out about these arrangements by studying written materials, by talking with fellow teachers, and through conferences with the principal. Although the principal will assume some responsibility for seeing that you get pertinent information, the days before school opens are busy ones for him. You should make your own check list concerning administrative arrangements and see that you get the answers on these vital administrative matters. But do not be hesitant about going to the principal if you are not clear about some matter of importance.

Arriving for Work Relaxed and Rested. As you plan the use of your time in the months preceding your first teaching, you should try to arrange your activities so that you will report for work relaxed, rested, and eager to teach. Since individuals achieve a relaxed and rested condition in a variety of ways, and since you know yourself, you must be your own guide in these matters. It is suggested, however, that, if you take a summer job, embark on an extended trip, or go on a strenuous vacation, these activities be terminated at least two weeks before you are to leave for the community in which you are to teach. It does seem sensible that you have plenty of time leisurely to organize and pack your belongings rather than frantically to throw your things together in a mad whirl of leave-taking.

You will have planned wisely, too, if you arrive in the school community at least a day or two before any deadline set by the school officials. In this way you can get well settled in your living quarters and have some extra time for the work involved in adjusting to the new school situation.

GROWING ON THE JOB

The modern teacher continues to grow professionally throughout his teaching career. He continues to work with children creatively, to examine his methods and procedures critically, and to experiment intelligently. He continues to study children. He becomes more understanding of the rôle of the school in democratic society. He learns from his fellow teachers and supervisors. He affiliates with professional organizations. He continues his reading of professional literature. He periodically renews

his professional contacts with the college or university through summer sessions, workshops, or part-time study. He continues to be guided in his teaching by a code of professional ethics which he accepts in full. Such a person never "arrives" as a teacher; he never stops growing on the job.

At this point in your professional life, you are, in a real sense, ready to embark on what is probably your most intensive period of professional growth—your first years of teaching. Your pre-teaching education, no matter how modern and thorough it has been, constitutes only a foundation on which to build. One beginning teacher showed considerable insight when he said, "I have found out some important things about the way children learn but I know, also, that there is much more for me to discover. I am aware that I need to learn from experience—my own teaching experience and the shared experience of my fellow teachers and supervisors."

As you face opportunities for growing on the job, you must, of course, adjust realistically to the situation in which you are teaching. Public-school practice normally lags somewhat behind the modern procedures advocated in college classes and demonstrated in campus laboratory schools. But most public elementary schools are continuously, if at times slowly, modernizing their programs. Moreover, some teachers and administrators within a given school system are far ahead of others. Your challenge is to adapt to the best of present practice within the system as a starting point, and then move coöperatively with other staff members toward what you believe is best for children.

Learning from the Principal. You will be fortunate if you teach in a school in which there is a full-time principal who devotes a generous share of his time directly to the improvement of teaching. Your individual relationships with the principal will be similar to those you have experienced with your critic teacher or college supervisor. He will want to help orient you to the school, to plan with you, to contribute concretely to the activities of your group, to observe you at work with the children, to appraise with you your growth. To profit fully from the knowledge and experience of the principal, you will want to make the most of your conference opportunities with him. Your behavior cues for conferences with him come directly from your experiences in conferring with your critic teacher and college supervisor. Rather than just dropping in on the principal, it is far more efficient to schedule conferences at mutually satisfactory times. You already know that what you get out of a conference is determined in no small degree by the way you prepare for it. One beginning teacher made a particularly poor impression on his principal when, in one of their first conferences, he said, "There were several other important things that I wanted to talk with you about but I don't remember now what they are."

If the principal is to be of real help to you, he will need to visit in your classroom and watch you at work with children. You will be contributing to good working relations by inviting him to come often to observe as well as to participate. Be specific with your invitations; mention a particular type of work with which you need his suggestions and appraisal. Or ask him to come to see the results of some activity that he has talked over with you. If he visits frequently in your room, not only will he be in a better position to help you, but you will find, also, that his presence does not make you tense and nervous or cause the children to behave unnaturally. Moreover, through his visitation, he will be able sympathetically to interpret your work to other teachers and parents.

The principal's interest in your professional growth, and the time and energy he gives you, will depend in large measure on your willingness to cooperate with him and other members of the staff for the good of the school. The principal will expect a beginning teacher to:

1. *Be a friendly, cooperative member of the staff rather than a rugged individualist.* Modern schools can operate efficiently only through cooperative action of the faculty. There is no place for the teacher, or administrator, who insists on being a "prima donna."
2. *Request the principal's assistance with big problems rather than with relatively unimportant details.* The teacher who runs to the principal for help in solving every problem that presents itself is not practicing mature self-direction.
3. *Handle his own discipline problems.* Modern principals do not expect to spend a major portion of their time interviewing and punishing children who have been disorderly or annoying to the teacher. The day-to-day problems of guiding children to self-discipline can best be handled by their teacher. However, the principal should be consulted on problems of a serious nature.
4. *Accept cheerfully assignments of "extra" work that must be done by a school faculty.* Serving on committees, supervising the lunchroom, sponsoring special-interest groups, et cetera are typical of the kinds of responsibilities that teachers must accept. Sometimes beginning teachers seem to get more than their share. But this may be due to the neophyte's unfamiliarity with school duties rather than undemocratic practices on the part of the staff.
5. *Be prompt and accurate with reports.* The principal is responsible for consolidating the administrative reports of teachers. He also has deadlines to meet. The beginning teacher is wise to work out a fool-proof technique for getting reports in on time, carefully checked and re-checked for accuracy.
6. *Invite constructive criticism from the principal and do something about his suggestions.* The principal who works professionally with beginning teachers, helping them plan and making suggestions for the solution of problems, will expect suggestions to be seriously considered and agreed-upon plans to be carried out.
7. *Accept responsibility for working with parents, for contributing to good public relations.* The principal knows that a good elementary school has the cooperation of parents who understand the program and believe in it. He expects the beginning teacher to work with parents and patrons to this end.

In many school systems the beginning teacher will have the help of one or more supervisors. Supervisors usually work with teachers in the capacity of consultant, giving help where it is needed. For the most part, what has been said about the relationships between new teachers and principals applies equally to supervisors. If you are working with both a principal and a supervisor, it is important for you to know which one has administrative authority for your curriculum work and which one is acting as consultant in an advisory capacity. Sometimes the relationships are not made clear and the beginning teacher finds himself in the position of trying to follow conflicting suggestions. While it is unlikely that such a situation will confront you, if this should be true of your supervisory relationships, you must discuss your dilemma with the principal and supervisor involved.

Learning from Fellow Teachers. Professionally-minded, experienced teachers in a school are willing and anxious for beginning teachers to solicit their advice and help. You can, of course, learn a great deal through informal talks and conferences with individual teachers about details of school administration, school routine, all-school activities, objectives of the school, parent-teacher relationships, and the like. You will soon find, too, that there are certain teachers in the building with whom you can talk with confidence about your teaching problems. Sometimes teachers can give you more specific assistance with certain kinds of problems than the principal is in a position to provide.

One practical way of learning from other teachers in the school is by visiting in their classrooms before and after school, showing interest in, and asking questions about, furniture arrangements, bulletin boards, experience reading charts, and other indications of the kind of learning experiences children are having in their rooms. On occasion, the principal or a supervisor may arrange for you to visit fellow teachers—sometimes teachers in another building—to observe them at work with children. As you obtain opinions and suggestions from other teachers, you will want to avoid establishing relationships which obligate you to act on their specific counsel. You will also need to discount hostile attitudes and negative criticisms concerning your preparation in modern practices and discerningly comprehend the insecurity and frustrations that give rise to the unprofessional behavior of some teachers. You will, of course, want to consider constructive suggestions thoughtfully and adopt those ideas which are compatible with your educational values and suitable to your group of children.

Learning from Faculty Meetings. Meetings of the faculty provide, potentially, rich learning experiences for beginning teachers. The meetings of the faculty of your own school will help you know your colleagues as persons as well as professional workers. Teachers' meetings in modern

schools are democratically conducted and primarily directed toward co-operative thinking and acting on common problems. As a beginning teacher, you have an opportunity to become more insightful regarding the guiding purposes of the staff and to learn more about curriculum procedures and administrative practices as they are functioning in your school. In these meetings you can gain feelings of belongingness as you participate, thoughtfully and tactfully, in discussion and decision-making. Your experiences with small group conferences in your student teaching constitute excellent preparation for your rôle in group work with fellow teachers. Remember that each person in the group must accept his share of responsibility for making these faculty meetings a success.

In most school systems meetings involving teachers from all of the schools are held periodically. At times all members of the staff are included. On occasion, the meeting is for a special group such as all early-elementary teachers in the system, all special teachers of music, or all later-elementary teachers. In purposes and procedures these larger gatherings resemble the large group conferences of your student teaching. Through these meetings the beginning teacher can gain comprehensive understandings of broad aims and recommended practices throughout the entire school system. Also through these gatherings, you will, at various times, have an opportunity to profit from contacts with the superintendent of schools, directors of instruction, and supervisors as well as from teachers and principals of other schools than the one in which you are working. The beginning teacher who is concerned with growing on the job will consider himself fortunate if meetings of this type are available to him.

A third type of group conference that may be offered for you is that which brings together all new teachers in the school system for a series of group meetings. The purpose of such meetings is to provide guidance for neophytes in various phases of social, personal, and professional adjustment. Through these meetings beginning teachers can get direct help on professional problems of particular concern to their group. In one school system a series of meetings dealt with, in order: orientation and planning, schedules and time allotments, promotion and retention, professional organizations, and functions of special teachers. If such meetings are not available to you on your new job, you might be successful in starting an informal organization of new teachers for this purpose. Usually all that would be necessary to get help from the administration would be for a group of beginners to express their willingness to meet periodically for the purpose of more rapidly orienting themselves to the school system and the community.

Affiliating with Professional Organizations. One of the most important influences for the improvement of education is teachers' professional

organizations. The major purpose of these groups, rather than being pressure groups for the selfish interests of teachers, is to make teaching more effective in its service and contribution to society. Teachers grow professionally through membership in such organizations by sharing experiences with others engaged in similar work and by working coöperatively to promote the general status of the profession. Every teacher should belong to one or more professional organizations. Local, state, and national organizations are available. While there is no question that it is an advantage for teachers to join with others for the good of the profession, each teacher must decide for himself the particular groups with which he will affiliate.

Your choices among local professional organizations will probably be quite limited. Most school systems, however, have one organization to which a majority of the teachers belong. This group will probably not be connected with any outside organization. Other local associations will likely be branches of state or national groups.

As a matter of professional loyalty, you should join your state education association. One of the strongest evidences of solidarity in the teaching profession is the very high percentage of teachers who belong to their state associations. Since education in the United States is, for the most part, a state responsibility, the educational policies established by the state legislature play a large part in determining the quality of education in each community. The state education association directs its efforts toward coördinating the aims, practices, and hopes of educators and toward interpreting them for the legislators and the people. The state association also serves education through holding state and district conventions, studying pressing problems, gathering pertinent statistics and keeping records, publishing a professional periodical, and distributing handbooks and pamphlets.

Membership in the state teachers' association makes possible attendance at the yearly meetings of the organization. Usually these meetings provide for general sessions at which broad topics are discussed by outstanding educators and speakers on world affairs. Sectional meetings deal more specifically with new ideas for working directly with children. As you attend these meetings for the first time, you will do well to approach them as another serious learning experience by which you may grow on the job.

The National Education Association is the only organization to which an appreciable percentage of American teachers belong. Many educators feel that teachers are obligated to affiliate with the N.E.A. They point out that this association represents the only immediate hope of a powerful organization, with a clear majority of teachers in membership, that could speak with real authority for the profession.

There are a number of other national professional organizations which you might consider joining:

Association for Childhood Education
 American Education Fellowship
 (formerly the Progressive Education Association)
 American Federation of Teachers
 National Society for the Study of Education
 National Association for Nursery Education
 National Council of Teachers of English
 National Council of Teachers of Mathematics

The beginning teacher who is concerned with growing professionally on the job will actively support organizations dedicated to improving education. In this way he becomes identified with the national scene in education. He gets stimulation for his work with children by reading the professional periodicals and by participating in meetings and conventions. Thus he extends his educational horizons beyond the confines of his local school community.

Continuing Professional Reading. If you would continue to grow on the job, you will do well to develop the habit of reading selected, professional literature as a means of keeping abreast of the best current theory and practice in education. You may be thinking that four years of college should have provided enough reading to take care of you for at least one year after graduation. But you will discover that, with teaching experience, professional literature will have even more meaning and much of it will have immediate value for you in your work with children. You will learn, too, that experience gives you more of a basis for being selective about what you read.

Professional reading is usually most fruitful when one can discuss the magazine articles, pamphlets, and books with others who have read them. Some school faculties devote certain of their meetings to a discussion of previously selected materials. Many teachers who work or live together get in the habit of making reading recommendations to each other as a basis for discussion. Modern principals and supervisors are able to direct teachers to particularly appropriate reading materials which can later become the subject of an individual or group conference.

Securing professional literature need not be unduly expensive for you. Some periodicals will come to you through your membership in professional organizations. Many of these organizations also issue inexpensive pamphlets of real value. Most school systems have established a professional library for the use of the staff, which includes at least one copy of major educational periodicals and some recent books of note. The members of many school faculties join together each year to share the expense of having selected, current, educational literature available in

their buildings. Many of the major publishing houses send to the schools bulletins on various aspects of the teacher's work with children. Since these bulletins clearly bear the imprint of the company, you will want to read them with the thought in mind that they do represent the educational viewpoint of the company making them available for free distribution. Then, too, you may be agreeably surprised at the service of the public library in providing professional materials for teachers and parents. You will, of course, want to purchase for your own library those books that you would like for reference again and again.

The demands of your work with children and the necessity for you of healthful recreation will limit the time you can spend on professional reading. For this reason you should not only be selective about what you read but also be somewhat regular in your reading habits. You might establish for yourself a minimum goal of reading, during a school year, one outstanding book and selected articles from each issue of two or three periodicals.

In addition to the monthly publication of your own state teachers' association, you might well choose your professional periodicals from the following list:

- American Teacher*. Chicago: American Federation of Teachers, 506 E. Jackson Blvd. \$1.50 per year.
- Child Study*. New York: Child Study Association of America, 221 W. 57th Street. \$1.50 per year.
- Childhood Education*. Washington, D. C.: Association for Childhood Education, 1201 16th Street, N.W. \$3.50 per year.
- Education Digest*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Education Digest, 330 South State St. \$3.30 per year.
- Educational Leadership*. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A., 1201 16th Street N.W. \$3.50 per year.
- Elementary English*. Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 211 W. 68th Street. \$3.00 per year.
- Elementary School Journal*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 5835 Kimbark Ave. \$1.50 per year.
- Journal of Health and Physical Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, N.E.A., 1201 16th Street, N.W. \$3.50 per year.
- Journal of the National Education Association*. Washington, D. C.: N.E.A. 1201 16th Street, N.W. \$3.00 per year.
- National Elementary Principal*. Washington, D. C.: N.E.A., Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 16th Street, N.W. \$3.00 per year.
- Progressive Education*. Urbana, Illinois: Box 33, University Station. \$3.75 per year.
- Social Education*. Washington, D. C.: National Council of the Social Studies, 1201 16th Street, N.W. \$3.00 per year.
- Understanding the Child*. Lancaster, Pa.: The National Committee For Mental Hygiene, Inc. North Queen St. and McGovern Ave. \$1.00 per year.

Living by a Code of Professional Ethics. No teacher can consider himself a worthy member of his profession unless his behavior is in harmony with an acceptable code of ethics. In certain professions a code of ethics is enforced by removing the right of practice from the individual who violates the code. In education no similar penalties are applied in any consistent or organized manner. But this should not be interpreted as indicating that there is less need in education than in other professions for ethical behavior. On the contrary, ethical behavior of the highest order is demanded of members in a profession devoted to service to humanity through the development of children.

There has been increasing concern in recent years with problems of ethics among teachers. Although most of the state teachers' associations have adopted codes of ethics, and the National Education Association has given nation-wide publicity to its statement of ethics, the situation leaves much to be desired. The difficulty lies in two directions. First, far too many teachers are unacquainted with the provisions of either their state code or that of the N.E.A. Second, a professional code loses its full force in influencing the behavior of members of the profession unless violations of its provisions are subject to review by an authorized board with power to apply penalties. Thus, the fact that living within ethical codes is largely a voluntary matter with teachers calls for self-discipline, group morale, and professional behavior of the highest order.

The beginning teacher would seem to have a clear obligation to be familiar with and try to live within the code of ethics of the N.E.A. and that of the state in which he is teaching. He has a responsibility to support ethical behavior among his associates and to expose and fight unethical behavior wherever he knows it to exist. He has, furthermore, responsibility for participating coöperatively with other teachers and administrators in interpreting and applying the general provisions of codes of ethics to the particular school situation in which he is working.

Your professional education has given you a sound foundation on which to build as you seek more fully to understand and practice ethical behavior in relation to working with children, in relation to participating in civic affairs, and in relation to the development of the profession of teaching. You have the educational background with which to become a truly professional teacher and to help others do likewise.

Living Richly as a Human Being. The major purpose of this book is to help the prospective teacher succeed with his professional responsibilities in his first intensive work with children. Relatively little emphasis has been given to the personal living of teachers. In fact, you may have gathered from your reading and study of this material that modern elementary education demands so much that the conscientious teacher will not have time to "live the good life." But you know, of course, that seldom are

teachers really effective in guiding children unless they are making satisfactory adjustments in their personal living. Far too many teachers are failing to have the rich and recreative experiences that they need for their personal growth and for professional competency in teaching. This need not happen to you.

As you look ahead to your first year of teaching, you can do some pre-planning that will contribute markedly to the quality of your personal living. You must budget time for recreation, rather than playing only after you have finished all of the work that is to be done. Plan a generous day's work and do the best you can within that time. You must learn to budget money realistically to avoid financial worries. Have funds for doing things, periodically, that give you a real lift. You must endeavor to keep work that is unrelated to your teaching to a minimum. You cannot afford to be drawn too absorbedly into time-consuming work for charities, service groups, churches, or other organizations. Particularly try to avoid out-of-school work with children such as teaching Sunday-school classes or leading youth groups. Then too, you will need a change of scenery occasionally. Get away for a week-end, away from your work and the people with whom you work. You will be fortunate if you can establish some friendships with men and women who are not connected with teaching. No matter how much you love your work you will become "fed up" if you live and talk education all of your waking hours.

Varied personal living is conducive to growth. If you will approach your recreation experimentally, you will grow in appreciation of, and gain satisfaction from, a wide range of leisure-time pursuits: reading novels and poetry, seeing legitimate drama and moving pictures, hearing symphonies and dance bands, experiencing the ballet, going to museums, and viewing spectator sports. You may already have an active interest or hobby that you will want to pursue. But experimentation may lead to the discovery of an avocation which for you is uniquely tension-releasing and pleasurable: participating in amateur dramatics, building with wood, knitting, sewing, hunting, doing creative writing, painting, playing a musical instrument, collecting, golfing, skating, horseback riding.

Such rich and varied personal living will contribute to your effectiveness as a teacher. Moreover, you owe it to yourself to live each year of your life as fully as possible. Growing on the job—not only in the first year but also in succeeding years—is properly directed toward developing a warm, interesting, balanced personality as well as toward achieving competency in teaching. Professional people are, above all, human beings. They continue to be truly professional only as they remain richly human.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATION

At this stage of your professional preparation you hardly need to be convinced of the importance of preparing carefully for placement, of considering problems of adjusting to the new school situation, and pre-planning for growth on the job. Through the use of these criteria for self-evaluation, you can appraise your progress in constructively and thoughtfully looking ahead to your first year of teaching.

1. *Preparing for Placement:*

What do you understand to be the functions of your college placement service? What, exactly, is your rôle in coöperating fully with this service? What plans do you have for using the suggested factors involved in judging the desirability of a teaching position? How are you preparing yourself for placement interviews? In what respects do you think a visit to the school system will be most helpful to you?

2. *Adjusting to the New School Situation:*

What procedures do you expect to use in learning about the curriculum of the school in which you are to teach? How do you propose to use your knowledge of the school's curriculum to guide you in reorganizing your professional materials? What do you conceive as your proper rôle in pre-school conferences? In faculty meetings? In individual conferences with the principal or supervisor? What, specifically, have you learned in your student-teaching conferences which will help you in these situations? What items will you include in the check list on administrative arrangements in the new school situation? From what sources will you find out about specific administrative arrangements?

3. *Growing on the Job:*

As you look ahead to continuing your professional growth on the job, how do you think your fellow teachers might help you? Your principal? Supervisors? What might meetings with faculty groups contribute? What materials are now included in your professional library? What are your plans for supplementing them? In what particular competency of teaching do you feel you will need to make the most growth? What characterizes satisfactory personal living for teachers as you see it? In what areas do you need to be experimental to achieve rich and varied personal living?

IDEAS FOR GROUP CONSIDERATION

1. Study the Code of Ethics of the N.E.A. reproduced below. Why do teachers need such a code?
2. Is there any section of this code which is not in complete harmony with your concepts of appropriate professional behavior for teachers?
3. Do you feel that there are any serious omissions in this statement of ethical behavior?
4. Are there demands on the teacher in any section of this code that will be difficult for the conscientious person to meet?
5. How can you, as a beginning teacher, contribute to the practice of ethical behavior in the profession?

THE CODE OF ETHICS OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION*Adopted in 1929 and Revised in 1941*

PREAMBLE—Believing that true democracy can best be achieved by a process of free public education made available to all the children of all the people; that the teachers in the United States have a large and inescapable responsibility in fashioning the ideals of children and youth; that such responsibility requires the services of men and women of high ideals, broad education, and profound human understanding; and, in order that the aims of democratic education may be realized more fully, that the welfare of the teaching profession may be promoted; and, that teachers may observe proper standards of conduct in their professional relations, the National Education Association of the United States proposes this code of ethics for its members. The term "teacher" as used in this code shall include all persons directly engaged in educational work, whether in a teaching, an administrative, or a supervisory capacity.

ARTICLE I*Relations to Pupils and the Home*

SECTION 1—It is the duty of the teacher to be just, courteous, and professional in all his relations with pupils. He should consider their individual differences, needs, interests, temperaments, aptitudes, and environments.

SECTION 2—He should refrain from tutoring pupils of his classes for pay, and from referring such pupils to any member of his immediate family for tutoring.

SECTION 3—The professional relations of a teacher with his pupils demand the same scrupulous care that is required in the confidential relations of one teacher with another. A teacher, therefore, should not disclose any information obtained confidentially from his pupils, unless it is for the best interest of the child and the public.

SECTION 4—A teacher should seek to establish friendly and intelligent cooperation between home and school, ever keeping in mind the dignity of his profession and the welfare of the pupils. He should do or say nothing that would undermine the confidence and respect of his pupils for their parents. He should inform the pupils and parents regarding the importance, purposes, accomplishments, and needs of the schools.

ARTICLE II*Relations to Civic Affairs*

SECTION 1—It is the obligation of every teacher to inculcate in his pupils an appreciation of the principles of democracy. He should direct full and free discussion of appropriate controversial issues with the expectation that comparisons, contrasts, and interpretations will lead to an understanding, appreciation, acceptance, and practice of the principles of democracy. A teacher should refrain from using his classroom privileges and prestige to promote partisan politics, sectarian religious views, or selfish propaganda of any kind.

SECTION 2—A teacher should recognize and perform all the duties of citizen-

ship. He should subordinate his personal desires to the best interests of public good. He should be loyal to the school system, the state, and the nation, but should exercise his rights to give constructive criticisms.

SECTION 3—A teacher's life should show that education makes people better citizens and better neighbors. His personal conduct should not needlessly offend the accepted pattern of behavior of the community in which he serves.

ARTICLE III

Relations to the Profession

SECTION 1—Each member of the teaching profession should dignify his calling on all occasions and should uphold the importance of his service to society. On the other hand, he should not indulge in personal exploitation.

SECTION 2—A teacher should encourage able and sincere individuals to enter the teaching profession and discourage those who plan to use this profession merely as a steppingstone to some other vocation.

SECTION 3—It is the duty of the teacher to maintain his own efficiency by study, by travel, and by other means which keep him abreast of the trends in education and the world in which he lives.

SECTION 4—Every teacher should have membership in his local, state, and national professional organizations, and should participate actively and unselfishly in them. Professional growth and personality development are the natural product of such professional activity. Teachers should avoid the promotion of organization rivalry and divisive competition which weaken the cause of education.

SECTION 5—While not limiting their services by reason of small salary, teachers should insist upon a salary scale commensurate with the social demands laid upon them by society. They should not knowingly underbid a rival or agree to accept a salary lower than that provided by a recognized schedule. They should not apply for positions for the sole purpose of forcing an increase in salary in their present positions; correspondingly, school officials should not refuse to give deserved salary increases to efficient employees until offers from other school authorities have forced them so to do.

SECTION 6—A teacher should not apply for a specific position currently held by another teacher. Unless the rules of a school system otherwise prescribe, he should file his application with the chief executive officer.

SECTION 7—Since qualification should be the sole determining factor in appointment and promotion, the use of pressure on school officials to secure a position or to obtain other favors is unethical.

SECTION 8—Testimonials regarding teachers should be truthful and confidential, and should be treated as confidential information by school authorities receiving them.

SECTION 9—A contract, once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent. Ample notification should be given both by school officials and teachers in case a change in position is to be made.

SECTION 10—Democratic procedures should be practiced by members of the teaching profession. Cooperation should be predicated upon the recognition of the worth and the dignity of individual personality. All teachers should observe the professional courtesy of transacting official business with the properly designated authority.

SECTION 11—School officials should encourage and nurture the professional growth of all teachers by promotion or by other appropriate methods of recognition. School officials who fail to recommend a worthy teacher for a better position outside their school system because they do not desire to lose his services are acting unethically.

SECTION 12—A teacher should avoid unfavorable criticism of other teachers except that formally presented to a school official for the welfare of the school. It is unethical to fail to report to the duly constituted authority any matters which are detrimental to the welfare of the school.

SECTION 13—Except when called upon for counsel or other assistance, a teacher should not interfere in any matter between another teacher and a pupil.

SECTION 14—A teacher should not act as an agent, or accept a commission, royalty, or other compensation, for endorsing books or other school materials in the selection or purchase of which he can exert influence, or concerning which he can exercise the right of decision; nor should he accept a commission or other compensation for helping another teacher to secure a position.

ARTICLE IV

Standing Committee on Professional Ethics

There is hereby established a Standing Committee on Professional Ethics consisting of five members appointed by the president.

It shall be the duty of the Committee to study and to take appropriate action on such cases of violation of this Code as may be referred to it. The Committee shall be responsible also for publicizing the Code, promoting its use in institutions for the preparation of teachers, and recommending needed modifications.

If, when a case is reported, it is found to come from a state which has an ethics committee, such case shall immediately be referred to said state committee for investigation and action. In the case of a violation reported from a state which has neither a code nor an ethics committee, or from a state which has a code but no ethics committee, the N.E.A. Ethics Committee shall take such action as seems wise and reasonable and will impress members with the importance of respect for proper professional conduct. Such action shall be reported to the chief school officers of the community and the state from which the violation is reported.

The Committee is further vested with authority to expel a member from the National Education Association for flagrant violation of this Code.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

ALBERTY, Harold (Chairman), *Progressive Education, Its Philosophy and Challenge* (New York, Progressive Education Association, 1941).

Issued in pamphlet form, this publication is one of the clearest statements in the professional literature of the philosophical foundations of modern education.

BOOR, Boyd, *Democracy as a Way of Life* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1937).

This book is an excellent selection for the pre-service reading of the prospective teacher. As the title indicates, it provides basic guidance for the teacher who would better understand democracy as a way of life.

GOULD, George and YOAKAM, Gerald, *The Teacher and His Work* (New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1947).

Chapter IV, "The Professional Relationships of the Teacher," deals with codes of ethics for the teaching profession and with the teacher's rôle in professional organizations.

GAFFIN, Alan F., *Freedom American Style* (New York, Henry Holt and Company, 1940).

This clearly written book will be stimulating to the beginning teacher who wishes to explore further the basic purposes of modern schools. Chapter I, "The Meaning of Freedom," is especially pertinent.

HULLFISH, H. Gordon, "They Look at Their Beliefs," *Progressive Education*, Vol. 16 (November, 1948) pp. 50-54.

In a world of conflicting values it is necessary that the beginning teacher become aware of how his values developed. This penetrating article will give you clues to the sources of your own values.

MORR, Paul R. and VINCENT, William S., *A Look at Our Schools* (New York, Cattell and Company, Inc., 1946).

This book, simply written for the citizen, is practical for the beginning teacher. Provocative sub-titles include: "You Cannot Train the Mind Like a Muscle," "The Modern School Recaptures Your Childhood Days," "Modern Schools Are Not Cheap."

National Education Association, *1948 Report of the Professional Ethics Committee* (Washington, D. C., The Association, 1948).

The report of this important committee includes not only the Code of Ethics of the N.E.A. but also each of the state codes. You may obtain a single copy free of charge by making the request on your school stationery.

OTTO, Henry J., *Principles of Elementary Education* (New York, Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1949).

The prospective teacher will find Chapter 15, "The Teacher as Person, Citizen, and Professional Worker," helpful as he looks beyond student teaching.

TROTT, Walter and HOWLAND, Adelene, "Make Them Feel at Home," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. IV, (November, 1946) pp. 125-129.

This article clearly describes the plan in one school system for the orientation of the beginning teacher.

WITTE, Paul A., SKINNER, Charles E. and others, *Mental Hygiene in Modern Education* (New York, Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1939).

Chapter XVIII, "The Rôle of the Teacher," written by Goodwin Watson, is an excellent discussion of mental hygiene applied in the professional and personal living of the teacher.

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